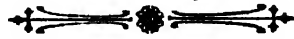


THE INDIAN REVIEW

A MONTHLY JOURNAL.



EDITED BY

G. A. NATESAN



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MADRAS

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THE KING AND HIS SONS.



KING GEORGE.



THE PRINCE OF WALES.



PRINCE ALBERT.



BRINCE JOHN.

THE INDIAN REVIEW

A MONTHLY PERIODICAL DEVOTED TO THE DISCUSSION OF ALL TOPICS OF INTEREST,
PUBLISHED ABOUT THE THIRD WEEK OF EVERY MONTH.

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JANUARY, 1915.

No. 1.

CHRISTIANITY AND WAR

BY

RT. REV. THE LORD BISHOP OF MADRAS.

 STATE of war between nations, especially between Christian nations, is on the face of it obviously a breach of Christian love. It is as unnatural a state of things as a quarrel or a fight between two brothers. It violates the fundamental principle of the brotherhood of man and the universal fatherhood of God. "The whole law," says St. Paul, "is fulfilled in one word, even in this, 'Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.'" "This is my Commandment," said our Lord Jesus Christ, "that ye love one another, even as I have loved you." No one could for a moment imagine that this law of love is fulfilled when nation goes to war against nation and when Christian brethren bend all their energies to kill one another. "Amid arms laws are silent" is an old saying. It is still truer that "amid arms love is silent."

A grave responsibility, then, rests upon the nation or nations that have provoked this terrible war, and we are rightly very sensitive on this point. Both England and Germany have been at great pains to justify their conduct to the conscience of the Christian world. The case for Great Britain has been set forth with great clearness in the speeches of Mr. Asquith, Mr. Lloyd George and Sir Edward Grey and in the White Book issued by the Foreign Office: and it has commended itself to the neutral nations of Europe and America. Our consciences are clear as to the justice of our cause. It is difficult in the heat of such a conflict as this to estimate nicely the exact force of the various motives which have influenced our people. Undoubtedly the British Empire, as a whole, felt from the first that its existence was at stake. They felt too that we were bound in honour to stand by France against aggression on the part of Germany. But from what I saw and heard and read myself in England during those

fateful days at the beginning of August last, I am sure that what roused the moral indignation of the people of Great Britain and united them as one man in support of the declaration of war was the violation of the neutrality of Belgium by Germany. It was then clearly seen that England had to choose between war and the breaking of its word; between fighting Germany and allowing a weak and helpless nation, which it had promised to protect, to be trampled under foot in defiance of treaty obligations. It was this plain moral issue that appealed with overwhelming force to the conscience, not only of Great Britain but of the whole Empire and made war appear not merely justifiable but a sacred duty.

If ever war is justifiable for a Christian nation, we can feel with a good conscience that Great Britain was justified in drawing the sword in this war. The only question that can be raised is whether it is ever right, under any circumstances, for a Christian nation to go to war; and whether the appeal to arms, even in defence of right and justice, is not a relapse into Paganism and a denial of Christ.

Undoubtedly both the teaching and example of Jesus Christ can be appealed to in defence of this extreme view. Such a saying as "Resist not him that is evil: but whosoever smiteth thee on thy right cheek turn to him the other also," is not easy to reconcile with going to war. And apart from definite precepts, there is the weight of our Lord's example. He would not allow his disciples to use force in His defence. When, on the night of His arrest in the garden of Gethsemane, Peter drew his sword and smote a servant of the High Priest and cut off his ear, our Lord bade him put up again his sword into its sheath, "for," he said, "all that take the sword shall perish by the sword." In the same spirit as He stood before

HOSPITAL SHIPS

BY

CAPT. A. J. H. RUSSELL I.M.S.

BRITAIN, being the greatest maritime power of the world and especially as she is now waging war in four continents, it is very essential that she should have a considerable number of Hospital Ships.

In an overseas-war one Hospital Ship is mobilised for each division of the field army. Each is equipped for 220 beds including 20 beds for officers. Subject to sea transport arrangements the control of Hospital Ships rests with the Director of Medical Services and his representative on the lines of communications. It is obvious, however, that in the circumstances of the present war there could be no such restriction as to numbers.

India's sons have not been the last to recognise the necessity of these ships, for two completely equipped vessels have been fitted out—one in Madras and one in Bombay—and are now engaged in the work of the transfer of wounded and sick from the seats of warfare.

It is customary, on the outbreak of war, to "convert" suitable passenger steamers into these floating Hospitals, as only one or two are borne on the active list in time of peace. This transformation was effected in Madras on the B. I. S.S. "Tanda," while in Bombay the Canadian Pacific Railway Company's S.S. "Empress of India" was similarly dealt with and it is not too much to say that no better equipped Hospital Ships than the H. S. "Madras" and the H. S. "Loyalty" are anywhere to be found. The Hospitalship *Madras* owes its origin to H. E. Lord Pentland, Governor of Madras, and its success has been chiefly due to the munificent generosity of the Zemindars and ruling chiefs of Southern India prominent among whom are the Maharajah of Travancore, the Rajahs of Cochin, Venkatagiri, Bobbili, Vizianagaram, Pittapuram and Parlakimidi. The general public of the Presidency also responded to His Excellency's appeal in a very generous fashion.

The Hospital Ship "Loyalty" has been presented to the Government by the Princes and Chiefs of India; and His Highness the Maharaja of Gwalior has made himself responsible for all

the arrangements and for the financing of the ship. Almost all the Indian Princes have associated themselves with the Maharaja Scindia in this mission of mercy: and among those who immediately intimated their desire to share in bearing the cost of this noble undertaking may be mentioned, the chiefs of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Rewah, Hyderabad, Bhopal, Sitaman, Jhabua, Dhar, Datia, Rutlam, Indore Sailana, Rajgarh, Barwani, Kashmir, Darbhanga, Rampur, Dewas (S.B), Dewas (J.B), Raghogarh, Alirajpur, Seket, Bardwan, Benares, Pauna and Dholpur.

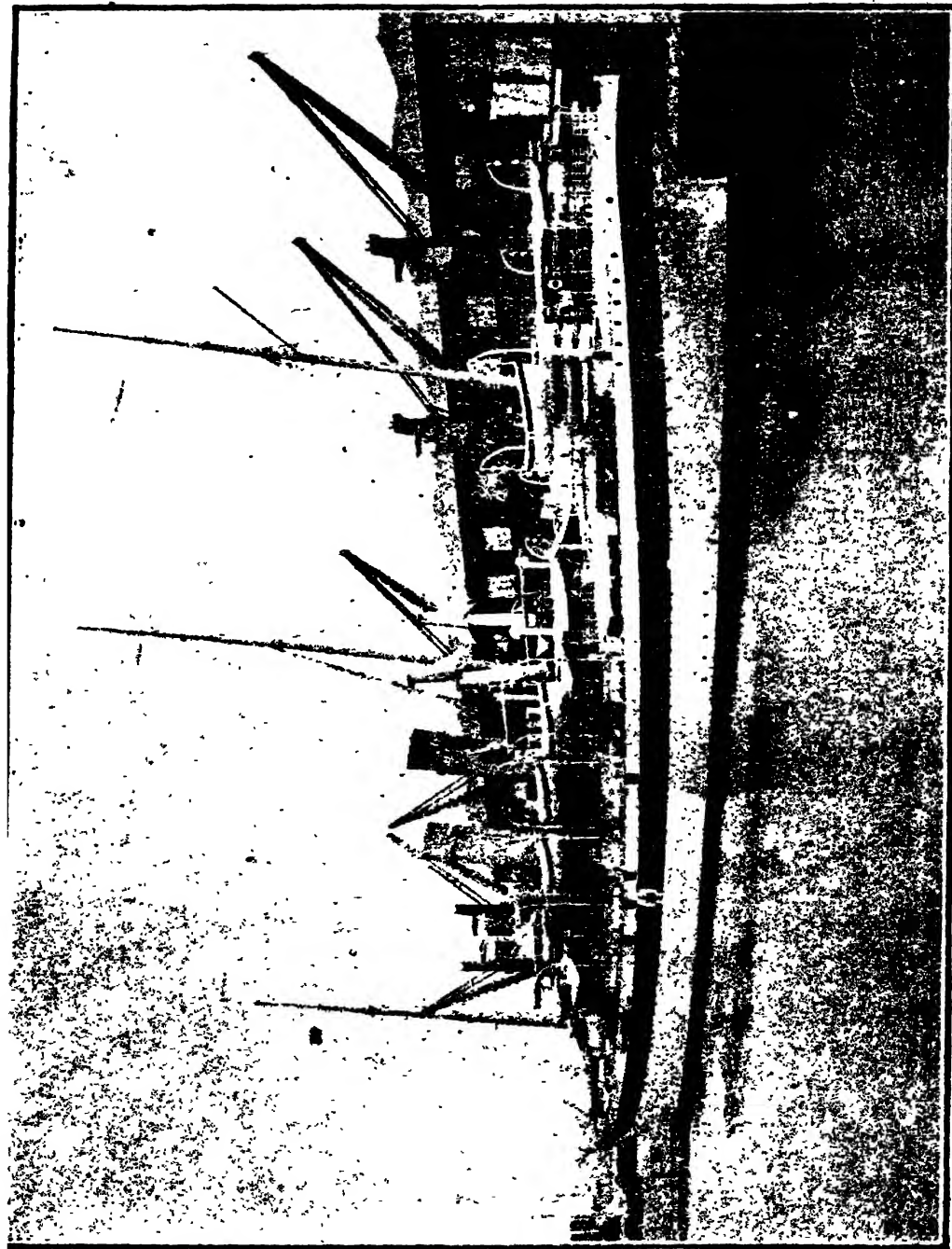
The first step in the transformation is the clearing of the main deck of all partitions and divisions. In the case of the S. S. "Tanda," this was easily done and her main deck was converted into a large ward for Indian sepoy, rows of bedsteads with swinging cots having been fixed to the deck. Other wards were arranged for Indian officers, European soldiers and European officers. The total number of sick and wounded that can be accommodated is 300 but arrangements have been made by which an additional 100 can be taken on board, should necessity arise. Cabins for the medical and nursing staffs were arranged for in the space reserved for first-class passengers.

In a hospital which is to sail the seas with wounded, it is necessary that all equipment should be complete and self-contained. An operating room is of the greatest importance and this should be situated in the centre of the ship, so that the motion of the vessel may be felt as little as possible. The dispensary, the X-ray room, the bacteriological laboratory the sterilising room and the laundry are all indispensable adjuncts. It may be noted that difficulties usually arise in the laundry, as a large quantity of linen is required daily and the drying of clothes is effected only with great trouble. This is especially the case when the ship is passing through temperate zones. For Indian troops a series of kitchens must be provided with cooks belonging to the different castes and races.

The medical staff of a hospital ship usually consists of five commissioned officers, this number, however, varying with the number of beds. In



THE MADRAS HOSPITAL, SHIP GROUP.



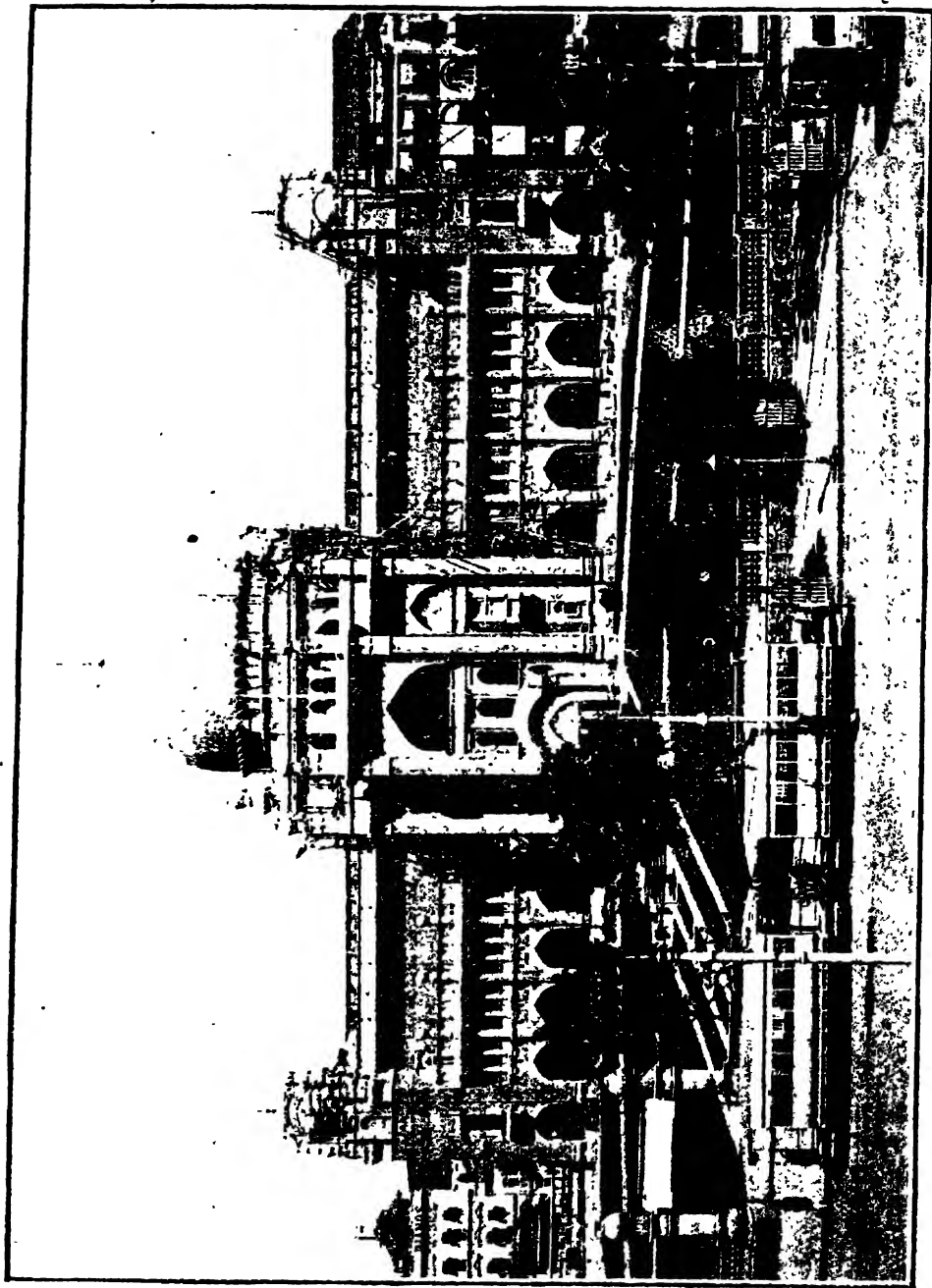
THE HOSPITAL SHIP LOYALTY.



THE HOSPITAL SHIP MADRAS, (FULL VIEW.)



THE HOSPITAL SHIP MADRAS, (PARTIAL VIEW.)



THE LADY HARDINGE WAR HOSPITAL, BOMBAY.

addition to these, assistant-surgeons are placed in charge of the X-Ray room and bacteriological laboratory while additional assistant surgeons and sub-assistant-surgeons are of course necessary for general duty. Perhaps as important as these is the nursing staff which varies in strength according to the size of the ship. The Hospital Ship "Madras" has 1 matron superintendent and 8 nurses for 300-400 beds.

Hospital Ships must be distinguished by certain marks. All military Hospital ships must be painted white with a horizontal band of green, while all other hospital ships carry a red horizontal band. The S. S. "Tanda" did not present a very picturesque appearance on her arrival at Madras, but as the Hospital-ship "Madras" her greyish white hull showed up the horizontal red band and large red crosses on her sides in striking relief. The large red crosses must be lit up at night, this being effected by means of a search light whose beams are thrown down on to the side of the ship. This prevents belligerent ships from attacking or torpedoing what otherwise might be taken as an enemy's ship.

The Red Cross Flag must be displayed along with the national flag, this being the distinctive emblem adopted at the Geneva Convention by the Powers. Turkey, however, uses a red crescent in place of the Red Cross. Under the recent Hague Convention various amendments to the old Geneva Convention have been ratified by the great Powers. It is of interest to note that British sailors have only been satisfying these Conventions when they endeavoured to collect the wounded Germans after the Heligoland fight. All wounded and sick in Hospital ships are to be looked on as neutrals and the medical and nursing staffs in charge as well as the surgical equipment are also to be treated as strictly neutral. In other words, the staff of a hospital ship cannot be made prisoners of war.

Under the Hague Convention called the Convention for the adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention, hospital

ships are divided into three classes: (1) Military Hospital-ships, (2) Hospital-ships equipped by private individuals or societies belonging to the belligerent states and (3) Hospital ships equipped by private neutral individuals or neutral relief societies. To secure the privilege of neutrality, however, in each case, it is necessary to send to the enemy before they are brought into use, the names of all ships intended for treatment and transfer of the sick and wounded. Hospital ships falling under classes 2 and 3 must also carry a certificate "declaring that they had been under the control and supervision of the Government authorities while fitting out and on final departure."

It is understood, of course, that these Hospital ships must not be used for any military purpose e.g. carrying ammunition or guns. On the other hand, "while the belligerents should be careful not to fire or attack a Hospital ship, they cannot be expected to desist from warlike operations they are carrying on, because a Hospital ship gets involved in them."

In addition to the ships India has also provided a special hospital to which the sick and wounded are removed immediately the Hospital Ships arrive in Bombay. This hospital bears the name of The Lady Hardinge War Hospital. Of course there are, in addition, several hospitals both in Bombay and in the other Presidencies and Provinces of the Empire, set apart exclusively for the accommodation of the sick and the wounded. The Bombay branch of the St. John Ambulance Brigade is entrusted with the task of removing the wounded from the ships to the Lady Hardinge War Hospital and in the case of those going out of Bombay the women's branch of the Imperial Relief Fund has fitted up special ambulance trains. It is common knowledge that several private individuals have placed their motors and carriages at the disposal of the St John Ambulance Brigade and these, not less than other subscribers, have responded splendidly to the needs of those who have suffered in the Empire's cause.

The Rangoon Newspapers on the "Indian Review"

This is a magazine which the publishers, Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., of Madras, have every reason to be proud of. We are glad to see that the editor is making an effort to break away from the old tradition of ancient Indian journalism and give us something more up-to-date. This magazine improves each month, and is full of interesting reading.—*The Rangoon Times*.

We hope that this *Review*, first of its kind in India, may live long and continue to be of useful service to the people of India.—*The Rangoon Standard*.

The premier Review and Magazine of India. The literary man, the politician, the scholar and student, will all find in its pages matter of engrossing interest. No literary man, educationist or student in Burma should deprive himself of the advantage of having the *Indian Review* on his bookshelf or table.—*Bassein News*.

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THE WAR AND THE PENINSULA

BY

PROF. K. C. MACARTNEY, M.A.

ANY people, whose business or pleasure is so exacting as to make it difficult for them to keep up by their reading with current politics in countries outside the Empire, are wondering why the neutral nations of Europe should be watching the present struggle with such tense anxiety. It is the purpose of the present article to remind them of certain facts relating to Spain and Portugal, which may help to throw some light on the subject. We will begin with Portugal, as that country stands more definitely committed to take action than does Spain at the present time.

Very early in August, Portugal announced her intention of adhering strictly to the terms of her ancient alliance with England and proceeded to set her house in order in accordance with that declaration. Before we come to discuss her reasons for this act, it is well to make ourselves quite certain of what it means. We all know that we are allied to Japan by treaty, and the present war has converted the *entente* with France and Russia into a *de facto* alliance, but the alliance referred to by the Portuguese Republic is not quite of this nature. It consists of a long-standing friendship which has in the past been of considerable advantage to both sides, and may yet be of very real service to them.

It is customary to date the Anglo-Portuguese friendship from the assistance given by John of Gaunt, the father of Henry IV. of England, to the Portuguese during the siege of Lisbon, which up till then had been in the hands of the Moors. This was in the latter half of the 14th century. In the 16th century that strangely romantic figure, Sir Thomas Stukely, next to Raleigh, the most typical of all Elizabethan Englishmen, was killed with many other English gentlemen while fighting on the side of the Portuguese King at the disastrous battle of Alcazar in North Africa. In the 17th century Charles II. married Catherine of Braganza, and received as her dowry Tangier in Africa and Bombay in India, which formed the first personal link between this country and the British Crown. In the 18th century England once more found herself in armed alliance with Portugal in the war which eventually drove Napoleon out of the Peninsula. At this time a commercial treaty was concluded between the two

countries, which had the effect in England of supplanting the French wings by those of Portugal. This is not the only commercial fruit of the long-standing friendship, but it is the best known one.

During the 19th century relations between the two countries received much strength from the relationship between the two ruling houses. Everyone will remember that the first visit paid by King Edward to a foreign Court was to his cousin, King Charles of Portugal. It is no secret that the two sovereigns had a deep personal regard for one another, which showed itself strikingly in King Edward's solicitude for the interests of King Manoel after his father's tragic death.

Quite apart from the warm friendship of the Rulers, however, England performed one great service to Portugal during this period. Portuguese power had, from causes which it is not our present purpose to discuss, been growing gradually weaker, but she had not lost her Colonial Empire altogether. This is always a dangerous position for a weak State, and the growth of Prussian Colonial ambitions did not make it any safer. In certain cases Portugal tried to sell her Colonies to Great Britain, but the English Government, for reasons which seemed to them at the time to be sufficient, refused to buy. This, to some extent no doubt, suggested and encouraged the German idea of securing for Germany the right of pre-emption over the Portuguese Colonies. This means that Germany has the right, if she can get her claim accepted, to the first refusal of any of the Portuguese Colonies which may be for sale. This right has never been conceded by England or Portugal, though England would probably not have attempted to stop a sale to Germany in which Portugal was a perfectly free and satisfied party, the evil in the German claim lies in the fact that it would be impossible for Portugal to resist German force, if she stood alone in the matter. The "buying" would most certainly have become the merest sham, Germany would have had it in her power to fix the price, if indeed any price were paid at all. Even while this talk of pre-emption was going on, Germany, if report speaks true, was making proposals to England to partition the Portuguese Colonies between them, as Poland had twice been divided, and in this

case there was no talk of payment to Portugal. Whether or not these reports were actually true hardly matters, they are believed to-day in Portugal. There it is believed by everyone, royalist and republican alike, that England alone prevented action being taken with this object in view after the Revolution. This goes far to explain Portugal's attitude towards Germany, for this reason, if for no other, she must cling to the English connection.

There are, however, other weighty considerations which all tend in the same direction. It hardly matters in the New World if one of the small Republics has a Revolution, but in sober Europe a Revolution is a disturbing occurrence. The Portuguese Revolution was attended by many circumstances, which shocked exceedingly a decorous Europe, though they would hardly have distressed the South American States. One king and his eldest son had been murdered; his youthful successor was driven from the Throne by the aid of artillery; after the king, fell the Church under most distressing circumstances; the Republic seemed to be supporting itself by means of secret agents and to be avoiding a frank appeal to the nation; it was evident that many people were opposed to the new régime even to the point of resisting it in arms; finally the treatment of political prisoners left very much to be desired. It is not our business to discuss these facts or their causes, very often the actions of a political faction are the results of causes for which they are only partly responsible, but the judgment of the world is very greatly influenced by facts, and rightly so, and these facts shocked Europe.

In this troublous time the sheet anchor of the Republic was the alliance between England and Portugal, to which it expressed its adherence almost before it was fully constituted. A new régime is hardly respectable in Europe, but the next best thing to being respectable, for States as for individuals is to claim connection with others of unassailable respectability; the United States is Great Britain's only rival in this particular virtue, and Portuguese Republicans knew this well.

We emphasize this point because it gives us the second compelling reason for Portuguese intervention at this moment. So far the Republic has not succeeded in freeing itself from the stigma attached to its inception; it is still rather in the shade, and people look askance at it. If, however, it could appear in a war of this kind as the ally of the most progressive and enlightened nations of Europe, fighting for the sacred causes

of national freedom and international probity, the return to the European family would be far easier. We have already emphasized the dangers of isolation for weak States with Colonial possessions.

There is a third point of view from which the Republican Government are bound to look at the matter. They know, and all the world knows, that the Portuguese nation is divided into fiercely antagonistic factions. No Government can be stable under such circumstances. There is probably only one thing which could unite all parties, and that is the danger of losing the Colonies. The Government may well feel that if the nation were united on this issue, they might learn to become more united on others, and in any case it would gain time.

They need have no scruple about raising the cry 'the Colonies are in danger.' Germany knows perfectly well the feeling aroused against her in Portugal. Were she victorious, Portugal would not be allowed to keep her Colonies for long. To Germany a World-Empire means no less than the command of the habitable globe. The victory of the allies, on the other hand, will make the external position of Portugal reasonably secure and she might easily enhance her prestige by becoming a partner in a successful war.

This analysis of the possible motives for Portuguese intervention in the war may seem a little cold, but it must be remembered that Portugal is not directly concerned in the immediate causes of the War, as is evidently felt by a section of the people, for the Republicans are finding it somewhat difficult to form a stable Government. Yet though the motives here suggested are less disinterested than those which forced the British Empire into the War, they are not of the nature to make ashamed the patriotic Portuguese of sincere Republican convictions. It must be the highest wish of such a person for the present to unite Portugal under the Republican flag, and for the future to save her from dismemberment. Also we must not suppose that the motives of international probity and the protection of the weak by the strong, which are dominating in Great Britain, France and Russia, are not also strongly operative among thoughtful people in Portugal.

So far we have assumed the probability of the Portuguese intervention on the side of Great Britain. The advantages which would accrue to the Allies from such a development may now be glanced at. In the first place, Portugal is not a great military state, but neither was Belgium before this war. There is little doubt that if well led and disciplined, the Portuguese soldier

would give a good account of himself, though a recent Revolution is not a good training for discipline and self-restraint. Portugal might put into the field several thousand men, who could be very useful even now as second line troops and would rapidly improve under the stimulus of actual war conditions. The principal advantage gained, however, would be the closing of the Portuguese ports to the enemy's shipping of all kinds; two months ago it was reported that some seventy German merchantmen had taken refuge in these ports, and on the other hand these harbours would be open without restriction to the Allied Powers; under quite conceivable circumstances this might be of extreme value to them.

SPAIN.

When we turn from Portugal to Spain, we are confronted with a far more complicated problem. Without much advertisement, Spain has in our time crept gradually back into a position, which is full of promise for her future greatness. Her close proximity to Portugal and the memory of a former possession of that country would of themselves be sufficient to cause some jealousy and suspicion between them. The sudden Revolution and the attack upon the Church which followed it, could only alienate the countries still further, for Spain is much troubled with Republican agitators, and is of all the countries of Europe still the 'most Catholic.' Had no other influences been at work, these would have been sufficient to bend the sympathies of Spain in the opposite direction from those of Portugal. But other pressure has also been brought to bear tending in the same direction. When Germany began to see that she dare not attack France over Morocco,

she hoped to attain her end by encouraging Spanish ambitions in the same quarter. Many students of contemporary European politics will remember that the friction resulting from these Teutonic efforts was so great, that it necessitated a special mission by the French Foreign Minister of the day to Madrid to put matters straight. The result was an agreement instead of a war between the two nations. Still there was some bitterness left behind in Spain, and the religious susceptibilities of the people were offended by the attitude of the French Republic towards the Holy See. France, England and Russia are all outside that communion, while Austria is, next to Spain, its most devoted supporter. These things count for much.

On the other side we have to place the influence of the Court. No foreign Prince is so popular in England as King Alfonso, and he is hardly, if at all, less popular in France. He has shown his friendship for both these countries on his frequent visits to them. His Queen is an English Princess, who, though she has cousins fighting for Germany, has already lost one brother killed in action while fighting for the freedom of Belgium. There can be no doubt upon which side the Royal sympathies lie.

In any case Spain would not wantonly declare war upon her nearest neighbours. She has nothing to gain and much to lose by doing so, for ultimately their cause is hers, as it is that of every State which desires to be delivered from the crushing burden of an all-consuming militarism. Spain will almost certainly remain neutral throughout the War, unless she is forced to take up arms in self-defence, a contingency which need not now be seriously considered.

The American Press on the "Indian Review"


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The "Indian Review" is admirably compiled and carefully edited, and will be welcomed by all who hold that the modern liberal methods of governing Britain beyond the seas are for the best interests of the Empire.—*The Anglo-American Gazette*.

A copy of this magazine would give our American brethren a better idea of the conditions that obtain in India than could readily be gotten from any other source.—*Health, (America)*.

* * * The "Review" is always interesting.

* * * To those interested in Asiatic affairs will prove a highly satisfactory issue. The independent spirit that animates the management of the publication is plainly manifested in the opening article. * * * An excellent number.

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MR. GANDHI'S HOME-COMING

BY MR. G. A. NATESAN.

THE return of Mr. Gandhi to India and the magnificent reception that has been accorded to him at Bombay on the day of his landing "reminds us of the noble and inestimable services, which this singularly great man,—"Saint, Martyr and Patriot" he is,—has rendered to his country. It recalls to our mind the story of the sufferings which thousands of our countrymen in South Africa underwent for a long number of years. It has been narrated by a thousand tongues and on a thousand occasions, and yet it would be impossible to cease to admire the intense patriotism, courage, and self-sacrifice shown by Mr. Gandhi and his comrades in South Africa—Mahomedans, Hindus, Zoroastrians and Christians—who, heroically suffering persecution, carried on unceasingly, unflinchingly and regardless of all consequences a great, spirited and strenuous struggle for asserting the elementary civil rights of British citizenship against heavy and overwhelming odds, and against power, prestige and authority. It is now well-known throughout the world that Mr. Gandhi and the Indians in South Africa were fighting for years against a law which classed them with undesirables and against a legislation which was meanly and mischievously designed "to brand them with the bar sinister of inferiority," to use the well-known phrase of Lord Morley. It is also well-known how from the very beginning, under the leadership of Mr. Gandhi, the Indians of South Africa refused to submit to a legislation which marked out an Asiatic as an inferior human being. It is also well-known how in the beginning, our countrymen took strong and serious objection to obeying a legislative measure which imposed upon them the most ignoble and humiliating conditions. Numerous were the peaceful representations made to the authorities to remove the unjust and unjustifiable legislation. Numerous were their protests and unceasing their agitation and yet none of these proved of any avail.

It was at a supreme moment and at a most critical juncture in the history of the South African Indian question that Mr. Gandhi, for the first time perhaps in the history of the world, resolved to employ the weapon of passive resistance to win the struggle in which he and his

countrymen had thrown themselves heart and soul. It was a bold and unprecedented step which Mr. Gandhi took at the moment. He and his countrymen were to fight the plutocracy of gold hunters in South Africa not with vituperation, not with violence, not with organised riots and revolutions but by the supremacy of soul-force. The soul resistance of Indians was pitted against the brute-force of the Whites in South Africa. Indians who joined the struggle in hundreds and thousands refused to obey the law and suffered in their own persons, the consequences of such disobedience, and the spectacle afforded India and the world a magnificent example of self-denial and suffering in their own persons for the sake of a peaceful and orderly agitation. For years the struggle went on, often times under the most desperate conditions and yet not one of the Indians were accused of using violence of any sort or employing methods of which any one need be ashamed. And throughout, it was a magnificent and heroic struggle for right and for justice, and success was bound to attend on it in the end. It was a sight for the Gods.

Mr. Gandhi and his brave band have succeeded in removing the racial bar, have asserted the rights of Indians in South Africa to be consulted in all matters affecting their welfare and more than all, have made the authorities remember that an Asiatic has rights and that the British Indian subject carries with him the elementary rights of British citizenship, and even a selfish band of Colonials are bound to respect them to some extent at least. Mr. Gandhi who ten years ago was hated and despised by the white population in South Africa is now an object of veneration everywhere. He fought so hard and so steadfastly and yet so constitutionally. In his hands and in the hands of the handful of Indians who were living in far off South Africa, thousands and thousands of miles away from the home of their birth, was the honour and self-respect of their Motherland. Well they have fought for it, suffered for it and preserved it untarnished. Aye, they have added to its glory. It is difficult to single out from the great and noble patriots of this land of ours either from among the living or the dead any who can be said to equal Mr. Gandhi. Patriots there have been and patriots

there will be. It would be no exaggeration, however, to say that of no one else can it be said except of Mr. Gandhi that in him patriotism was a living faith, patriotism was the real abnegation of the self and the surrender of all that was most near and dear to men in this world.

For the great cause of which he was the honoured representative, no suffering was too great to be borne. Was it necessary for the leader to go to jail, for the vindication of justice? Mr. Gandhi was ready. Inside and outside the prison walls, under conditions the most wretched and humiliating he showed the stuff of which the hero was made. Was it necessary that an Indian woman should follow the example? His honoured spouse, Mrs. Gandhi was ready. Was it necessary that young boys should also follow the lead? Mr. Gandhi's sons also obeyed the call of duty. Mr. Gandhi, a high caste Hindu, the son of a Prime-Minister of a great Native State, the thriving barrister, a man who had enjoyed all the comforts and luxuries of the world, had sacrificed his practice, his profession, his health, his wealth, his fortune, and everything at the altar of his country's cause and borne cheerfully even the felon's fetters for maintaining the honour and self-respect of his motherland.

The thousands of Indians who have obeyed him readily without a murmur and who were ready to follow him wherever he desired were not educated in any sense of the word. They were poor men, born of the people, brought up among the people, pursuing their peaceful and humble avocations among the people—as barbers, washermen, hawkers and traders. Neither B.A.'s nor M.A.'s of our Universities, knowing nothing of the liberalism of Lord Morley, the radicalism of John Stuart Mill, or even of the advanced socialism of Mr. Lloyd George, and indeed never having read even a single syllable about the elementary rights of man or of liberty, equality and fraternity, at the call of duty and under the guidance of a singularly noble soul, they were ready to throw themselves in the midst of a struggle which involved untold sufferings and unmentionable humiliations. Several homes were rendered desolate, several trading concerns were closed or completely ruined. And yet nothing would daunt them, nothing would prevent them from pursuing the path of duty which had been pointed out to them by their honoured leader. Long, trying and painful was their suffering and yet how willingly they subjected themselves to every kind of trouble!

The very thought of the heroism and fortitude displayed by these brave and simple people makes the proudest amongst us blush. They fought, they resolutely and bravely fought for the honour and the good name of their race and their country. All honour therefore to Mr. Gandhi who "has moulded heroes out of clay." And even if the cause of the South African Indians had utterly failed and their heroic campaign had proved futile the legacy of the great spiritual asset given by Mr. Gandhi to his countrymen will be a proud possession indeed.

The present is perhaps not the fittest opportunity to discuss in detail the large and the still unsolved question of the position of Indians in the British Colonies. Does or does not the Indian carry the right of British Indian citizenship wherever the British flag floats? This is the problem to be faced boldly and honestly in the near future. In so far as the issue raised by Mr. Gandhi in South Africa has been settled amicably, in a manner honourable alike to both the parties, India has every reason to feel proud of the great and noble achievements of Mr. Gandhi and his brave band. For be it remembered that

"the settlement has removed the possibility of racial legislation against Indians throughout the Empire.... The flag of racial equality has been kept flying, and it is now recognized that Indians have rights and aspirations and ideals that cannot be ignored. The struggle has more than proved the immense superiority of right over might, of soul-force over brute force, of love and reason over hate and passion. India has been raised in the scale of nations, her children in South Africa have been ennobled, and the way is now open to them to develop their capacities in peace and concord and thus contribute their quota to the building up of this great new nation that is arising in the South African sub-continent."

And the Hon'ble Sir Pherozeshah Mehta was in no way exaggerating when he reminded his audience at a great and representative gathering in Bombay that "the whole country has resounded with the tale of Mr. Gandhi's great deeds, his courage, his great moral qualities, his labours, and his sufferings in the cause of Indians in South Africa. So long as we have Indians like Mr. Gandhi and Indian woman like Mrs. Gandhi we need not despair of our country. They show that at the proper time and as occasion may arise they are possessed of the highest qualities of courage, heroism and capacity of endurance and suffering." No honour could be too great for this singularly self-sacrificing and the selfless Saint of Modern India. Well might Mr. Gokhale exclaim, "a purer, a nobler, a more exalted spirit has never walked on this earth."



THE IMPERIAL FAMILY OF JAPAN.



THE TSAR OF RUSSIA AND HIS FAMILY.

RUSSIA AND ENGLAND IN ASIA

BY

MR. J. CHARTRES MOLONY, I.C.S.

TEN years ago he would have been a bold man who predicted that at no very distant date Englishman, Russian, and Indian would be found fighting shoulder to shoulder against a common foe. Russia was then the bogey of the English in India, and the natural aim of every pious official was to din into Indian ears the incalculable advantages of a life under English as opposed to Russian administration. Now that the erstwhile foes are friends it may be worth while to essay some account of Russia's dealings with her Asiatic subjects.

Information, it may be admitted, is not easily obtained. So recently as last June a Russian official told the present writer that it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, for an Englishman to obtain admission to Turkestan. His explanation of this fact, if credible, is curiously illustrative of the Russian temperament: when Russian Asia was in the making the presence of foreigners, especially of foreigners with Asiatic interests, was not desirable; now that the work is accomplished nobody has taken the trouble to revise antiquated and unnecessary rules.

Such information as we possess is gleaned mainly from the writings of the Hungarian Arminius Vambéry, who certainly knew Russian Asia even in its pre-Russian days. But Vambéry, the most fervid Englishman must needs admit, is blinded by prejudice, and in some respects incorrectly informed. To Vambéry Russia is anathema; at most he admits that Russia has brought peace into her Asiatic territories; he draws a grudging contrast between his past and his present feelings, as he reads his newspaper in a comfortable railway carriage passing through scenes where once he "trembled in the guise of a mendicant dervish." Otherwise he can see little good in Russian administration; officials are debauched and despotic, little is done for the enlightenment of the native population, picking and thieving goes on under the eyes of a complacently corrupt police: all this is contrasted with the liberality and wisdom of British rule in India. But a reader with some Indian experience must soon discover that Vambéry's personal knowledge of India was *nil*, and that he appears to have been

at little pains to make good by enquiry his lack of first-hand information. Without multiplying instances it may be observed that his "Western Culture in Eastern lands" is pervaded by the extremely erroneous idea that India is wholly or in the main a Mahommeden country.

A later informant is Mr. Eleroy Curtis, an American who succeeded in gaining admission to Turkestan, and who "for several reasons feels safe in recommending it as a good country to keep away from." His impressions of the country are picturesquely, if slangily, recorded; they are none the worse for the fact that the author lays no claim to the status of a profound political philosopher.

British dominion in India like Topsy "grewed," and has been growing for a very long while; Russian rule in Asia is of comparatively recent date, and is a product of deliberate conquest. In India a handful of traders mainly desirous of commercial profit were led gradually into an interference in politics, and to the gradual reaping of a vast political profit from the dissensions of the several rulers of the land. Skoheleff's savage and calculated blow at Geok-Tepe more than anything else laid the secure foundations of Russian authority in Central Asia. "I hold it as a principle," said Skoheleff, "that in Asia the duration of peace is in direct proportion to the slaughter you inflict upon the natives." He acted up to his principle at Geok-Tepe, where some 20,000 Turkomans of all ages and sexes were put to the sword after the storming of their last stronghold. Whatever be thought of the morality of this procedure there is no doubt that it attained its object; the Russian have had no further trouble in Turkestan. On the other hand it is but fair to note that General Kaufmann's earlier subjugation of Khiva was marked by a humanity that surprised no one more than the people subjugated.

British rule in India and Russian rule in Central Asia are now established; the rulers in each case may be credited with good intention towards the ruled. British rule in India we know; it is instructive to note the difference of Russian methods.

The essential contrast between British and Russian rule lies in the fact that, so far from Russia's military power in Asia being the subordinate instrument of the Civil authority, in this portion of her dominions a purely Civil authority is practically non-existent, at any rate in the higher ranks of the administration. The Viceroys or Governors mentioned by Mr. Curtis and other writers are all military men; among their names are some that recent events have made familiar to us. General Kaufmann, first Viceroy of Turkestan, had as his assistant and successor General Kuropatkin; at the time of Mr. Curtis' visit the supreme authority was exercised by General Samsonoff, who fell at an early stage of the present war. And in estimating the extent of the Russian Viceroy's authority Mr. Curtis observes: "I do not know of any other civilized ruler on the face of the earth who is so independent of all criticism and restraint as the Viceroy of Turkestan."

For the British official in India, to whom free criticism, garden-parties, and "sympathy" are as the essentials of his official existence, Mr. Curtis certainly provides some quaint reading. "The Viceroy of Turkestan is not troubled with any of these afflictions," to wit a council, a free press, and parliamentary criticism. "The Viceroy offers very little hospitality either to the natives or the Russian residents. The Viceroy of India holds regular levees, at which the native Princes, Rajahs and Maharajahs are entertained with ostentation; at Tashkend all such things are omitted"—save on certain stated occasions, one of which, the Emperor's birthday, is described as follows:—

Proceedings started with service at the Russian Church, and while mass was being celebrated the local notables gorgeously attired gathered on the parade ground. At the close of divine service the Viceroy emerged from the Church-door "followed by enough generals to command an army corps" approached the waiting throng, and "listened impatiently to a tedious speech from the eldest of the elder statesmen." The first time the speaker paused for breath the Viceroy broke in with a promise to telegraph these expressions of goodwill to the Emperor, bowed abruptly, wheeled about, and "followed by a platoon of generals" strode hurriedly across the parade ground and disappeared within the palace door. Obviously no Board in Turkestan compiles manuals of etiquette for the Russian official.

General statements are apt to be misleading.

In theory the Russian Viceroy is an irresponsible autocrat; in practice it would seem that he is always a picked man of proven ability, who can be trusted to refrain from any needless assertion of the authority that he possesses. Non-interference, indeed, seems to be a cardinal principle of Russian rule in the East. If Mr. Curtis' accounts are to be believed, there exists in Central Asia a curious system of Home Rule under the general direction of Russia. For example, "the Russians have avoided the mistake that the English made in India, when they abolished the native courts and referred all litigation to modern tribunals"!!! Accordingly there are two kinds of courts, Russian and native: the Kazis have jurisdiction over ordinary suits in which natives alone are involved, but wherever a foreigner is concerned the case goes before a Russian Court. Against all decisions an appeal lies to the Viceroy, but he "seldom interferes unless some political question is involved."

Detailed information as to the working of this *imperium in imperio* on the executive side is unfortunately lacking. In certain broad aspects, if Mr. Curtis is correctly informed, paternal supervision is exercised to an extent undreamed of in the palmiest days of Indian *na-bab's* administration. The Turkoman, for example, may not drink forbidden liquors: "the penalty for selling or giving liquor to a native is 500 roubles fine for the first offence, 1 year's imprisonment for the second, and 5 years' for each subsequent offences." Immigration is permitted but is not encouraged: Russians are not allowed to compete with natives in lines of business which the latter were pursuing before the annexation (Shades of John Company!!): newcomers may open up new country, but they cannot buy land that was being cultivated by the natives.

The general result of this policy appears to be that the natives are protected, treated kindly, but not encouraged to aspire after Western education or Western "enlightenment." Russia found a fairly homogeneous people, Muhammadan in the main engaged in cultivation and petty trade, peacefully so far as native misrule and local strife permitted. Misrule and strife have been abolished, and the native now contentedly produces for Russia vast quantities of raw material, such as cotton, wool and skins, and he as yet seeks no higher destiny. A praiseworthy taste for improved agriculture, especially in relation to cotton, and for the modern machinery essential thereto is encouraged, and its needs supplied by Russia.

Turkestan is strictly protectionist; having secured a market, Russia does not risk her advantage by encouragement of foreign competition.

On the very interesting question of how far the natives of the country may aspire to official position, and to authority in general as opposed to local administration, our informants are exasperatingly silent or contradictory. The idea that Russian Asia is a land of equal opportunity for all irrespective of race is, or has been, prevalent in India. The foundation for this belief appears to be the career of one individual, the late General Alikhanoff. Alikhanoff is so obviously a Russification of Ali Khan that it requires little imagination to call up a vision of Muhammadan, and presumably Asiatic, officers enjoying privilege and advancement equally with their European fellow-subjects. But the conclusion seems to be founded on doubtful premises. Alikhanoff may have been a Muhammadan, or at any rate descended from Muhammadan ancestors; but there seems to have been little of the Oriental about him. Born west of the Caspian, his education was wholly western in Petrograd, the Petersburg of those days; in appearance and manner he reminded Lord Curzon of a Scotch Marine Engineer; his recorded opinion* on the Turkomans hardly strikes one as that of an Asiatic in full sympathy with his fellow countrymen. As to the meaning of his military

* "The Turkomans never keep a promise or an oath if it suits their purpose to break it. In addition to this they are liars and gluttons. They are frightfully onivous, and finally there is not a people so unattractive in any moral respect."


work there is some room for doubt. A soldier he fought in the Russo-Turkish War, but his subsequent promotion, one writer suggests, was in the nature of a reward for valuable explorations in Asia, especially in the direction of Merv, and for administrative work on the civil side. That many Russian Asiatics hold military titles higher than those usually conferred on Indians is remarked by sundry writers; but these writers leave us in doubt as to the real authority conveyed by these titles.

In one direction we may fairly claim that British administration in the East shows results far superior to that of Russia. The protected States of India are often justifiably referred to as models of progress and good government; Bokhara, the sole remaining independent principality of Russian Asia, appears to be very much a model of that which ought not to be. According to Mr. Curtis debauchee succeeds debauchee on the throne; taxation farmed out to usurers is extortionate, and when realised is devoted mainly to gratifying the whims of the ruler and his satellites; sanitation, and education are non-existent; the whole country groans under oppression and mismanagement. No enlightening advice or interference is essayed by Russia, which seems not unmwilling that the inhabitants of Samarkand, Tashkend, and the neighbouring Khanates, should have the opportunity of contrasting the broad, tolerant, and on the whole clean-handed policy of Russia with the non-progressive, narrow, and corrupt administration of the native ruler.

HIGH PRICES IN INDIA.

BY PROF. H. G. LIMAYE, M. A.

(OF THE FERGUSSON COLLEGE, POONA.)

 THE question of high prices has been engaging the attention of the Indian public for some years. Resolutions were passed by the Congress in connection with it. References were made to it in the Imperial Legislative Council. It was partly in deference to this widely expressed desire that the Government of India placed Mr. Dutt on special duty to investigate the whole problem of the rise of prices in this country. The scope of the inquiry entrusted to him was indicated by the following terms of reference :—

1. What has been the actual rise in prices in India during the last fifteen years? Has the rise affected all commodities alike, or is it specially marked in the case of food grains? Are there marked differences in respect of enhancement of prices as between different areas?
2. To what extent is the rise in prices due to what may be styled "world factors" and how far may it be ascribed to local conditions?
3. Does it appear that the rise is a permanent feature, or is it only temporary?
4. If it be more or less permanent, what are its probable economic effects on the country as a whole and on the different sections of the community?

Mr. Dutt's conclusions are :—

1. If fluctuations due to famine and other temporary causes be excluded, the general price level would show a steady increase from an average of 100 in 1890-94 to 137 in the quinquennium 1908-12.

The rise has been specially marked in the case of "hides and skins," "food grains—pulses and cereals," "building materials," and "oil seeds."

The rise of prices has been greatest generally in areas which have suffered from famine, and least in the circles which are practically immune from that calamity, notably Assam.

2. The causes of the rise of prices are twofold :—

(a) Important causes peculiar to India :

i. Comparative shortage in the production of foodstuffs.

ii. Increased demand for Indian products at home and abroad.

iii. Increase of communications within India and between India and foreign countries.

iv. Increasing monetary and banking facilities.

(b) Important world factors :

i. Increased supply of gold.

ii. Development of credit.

iii. Destructive wars and increased expenditure on armaments.

3. So far as India is concerned, the rise of prices is likely to continue for some time to come.

4. The effects of the rise of prices in India as a whole are beneficial. Only persons on fixed salaries or dependent on income from securities and shares, and professional men who live upon customary fees, have suffered from the rise in prices.

Mr. Dutt has treated the whole subject in an exhaustive manner, and his report is a valuable contribution to the economic literature of India.

There is likely to be no difference of opinion as regards the operation of world forces on the economic condition of India. This country is not isolated from other parts of the world. As regards commercial and economic phenomena it forms one whole with other countries. Whatever changes may be effected in other countries, they are bound to produce some influence on the economic condition of India; and on the other hand the changes in India react on the course of things outside. Mr. Dutt and the Government of India in their resolution on his report are therefore right in assigning an important place to the general economic world forces in bringing about a rise of prices in India. Mr. Dutt has shown in a table on page 48 of his report the large increase in prices during recent years all over the world. If 100 represent the average of the quinquennium 1890-94 for wholesale prices, their increase in 1911 will be shown by the following figures :—

Name of the country.	Index No. for 1911.
1. Great Britain	114
2. France	120
3. Germany	134
4. The United States of America	121

5. Australia

111

6. India

139

Thus if prices have gone up all over the world, India could not be an exception.

One of the most important causes of this general rise of prices in the world is the increased output of gold. The great majority of the writers on high prices maintain that the rise in prices is mainly due to this cause. There need be no hesitation in accepting this conclusion. Roughly speaking prices represent the ratio between money and commodities. When demand is constant, any increase in the volume of goods offered for sale is bound to lead to a fall in prices; and conversely when the quantity of money is increased, other things being equal, prices show a tendency to go up. This is the accepted principle of economics, and it has been proved more than once in the history of the world. The discovery of the precious metals in America and their importation into Europe led to the rise of prices in the sixteenth century. More recently about the middle of the last century the same phenomenon repeated itself after the discovery of the Australian and Californian mines. It was to be expected, therefore, that the increased output of gold in recent years should have a tendency to raise the prices of commodities.

One other cause assigned to the general rise of prices is of special interest at this moment. The increased expenditure on armaments and the wastage of capital caused by war are important factors in determining the level of prices. At a meeting of the British Association, Sir Francis Webster said : "The first thing to break the calm . . . and apparently to arrest what seemed an endless downward course of prices was the American Spanish War" of 1898. Since then there has been a succession of wars. The South African War followed immediately afterwards. The Russo-Japanese War took place in the early years of the century. The Tripolitan War and the Balkan War were waged later on. These wars involved a double loss. In the first place, there was the loss of hundreds of thousands of able-bodied men, whose energies could have been employed to better purpose in productive work; and, secondly, there was the loss of capital that was destroyed, but which could have been utilised for the production of wealth. But it is not actual war only that leads to these evil consequences. Even the preparation for war is equally mischievous in its results. The race for armies, navies and armaments has been very keen between the great powers of Europe. Their naval and mili-

tary budgets have increased enormously. Large numbers of men were withdrawn from productive employment and were being trained to destroy their fellow-beings as rapidly and as effectively as possible. The inevitable has followed. And today we are witnessing a terrible holocaust of millions of men and a wholesale destruction of property and capital unparalleled in its extent and unprecedented in its severity. Even if the production of gold is not maintained at its present level, the dire effects of the European War will be experienced by later generations in the dearth of capital and in the maintenance of a very high level of prices.

As regards the causes which are peculiar to India there are some about which public opinion will be in agreement with Mr. Dutt. For instance, the development of banking, the extension of the means of communication, the increased demand for Indian articles—these will be generally admitted as important factors in bringing about the rise in prices. The extension of the means of communication by the opening of new railways and the construction of new roads, etc., produces a most powerful influence in equalising prices all over the country. The increase brought about in this way is particularly noticeable in the out of the way parts. This explains why the rise in Bundelkhand, for instance, is 45 per cent. while in Madras it is only 36 per cent., the average for India being 38 per cent. This equalising process can be particularly noted in the case of countries that are in course of development. It may be expected to continue in India for some time to come.

The increased demand for Indian products abroad can be easily demonstrated by figures. The export trade of India is going up by leaps and bounds. The total value of Indian exports was Rs. 90,63,00,000 in 1890-91, while it went up to Rs. 2,04,90,00,000 in 1911-12. This large increase in foreign demand must have contributed to the rise in the prices of the commercial crops.

There is a serious difference of opinion as regards one point between the Government of India and Mr. Dutt. He says that a shortage of supply especially in the case of food grains is one of the principal causes which have led to the rise of prices in India. According to him this shortage has mainly resulted from :

- (a) Unseasonable rainfall.
- (b) Substitution of non-food crops for food crops.
- (c) Failure of the growth of cultivation to keep pace with the growth of population.

The deficiency caused by the failure of rains is

not permanent. But during recent years droughts and insufficient rainfall have been of frequent occurrence and have seriously affected the food-supply of the country. The substitution of commercial crops for food crops and the growth of population outstripping the increase of cultivated area, are facts which can be proved and have been proved by elaborate statistics by Mr. Dutt. But the Government of India object to the statistics relied upon by him and consider them to be untrustworthy. It is amusing to find that Mr. Dutt's figures are all taken from publications issued under the authority of the Government of India itself. Mr. Dutt's conclusions being unacceptable to them, the Government set about preparing a new set of figures not relating to the whole of India, but only to those parts for which according to them reliable statistics could be had. These figures support a conclusion which is more acceptable to them. This can hardly be considered fair or satisfactory. It almost appears that the figures are so manipulated simply because they wish to show that their own view is correct. According to Mr. Dutt's figures both the area under cultivation and that under food crops have failed to keep pace with the growth of population. The Government figures for the selected areas show that the increase in the area under cultivation is in excess of the growth of population in those parts, although the areas under food crops still show some comparative decrease. In order to show that this decrease has not affected the production of food, the Government of India have drawn upon the figures for irrigation. A part of the period under review saw considerable activity in irrigation works, and there has naturally been some increase in the area under irrigation. But this is only a very small percentage of the total area under cultivation and cannot therefore be regarded as improving the position to any great extent. Besides it does not seem to be quite correct to compare the population and cultivation statistics for a few selected areas, to draw inferences from this comparison and then to assume that these results represent the state of things for the whole of India. It is quite possible that the growth of population in these selected parts might not have been as great as in other provinces or parts of provinces, and if this is so, the whole theory of the Government falls to the ground. Mr. Dutt's procedure is more scientific, and his position cannot be shaken by mere juggling with figures.

Mr. Dutt's conclusions as regards the influence of the increase of rupee coinage in bringing about

a rise in prices are not convincing. There is a general feeling in this country, at least among Indian publicists, that the increase of rupee coinage has something to do with this rise. But Mr. Dutt says: "The rupee coinage of the Government of India could not have exercised any important influence on the level of prices." He bases his conclusions mainly on two arguments; namely, that the average net coinage of silver has not increased in recent years and that the currency system of the Government of India is necessarily automatic, inasmuch as silver coinage is undertaken only when rendered necessary by the demands of trade. In support of his first argument Mr. Dutt quotes figures to show that the coinage of silver during the eighteen years after the closing of the mints has not been as large as that before it during an equally long period. This, however, cannot prove very much. The policy of closing the mints to the free coinage of silver was adopted for the purpose of raising the rate of exchange. That object was attained when the mints were closed for some years. When exchange had become steady and the gold standard had been adopted, fresh coinage of silver was undertaken. These additions to the silver currency of the country did not upset exchange but were supposed to have sent up rupee prices. To say that Government do not undertake the coinage of silver on their own initiative, but they do so only to satisfy the demands of legitimate trade, does not go to the root of the question. It is common knowledge that in India there are some months of the year in which business is very brisk, while in the remaining months there is very little trade. The demands of business men in the brisk season may force Government according to their view to undertake fresh coinage of silver. But the question is: What is to become of this addition to the currency during the slack season? If silver coins had not been merely token coins, if the face value and intrinsic value of silver coins had been practically identical there would have been no difficulty, and the excess of silver coinage might have been disposed of in a variety of ways as in the days previous to the closing of the mints. But now the whole volume of this currency remains on hand, unnecessarily increases the amount of money as compared with the quantity of goods and affects the level of prices. Mr. Dutt's efforts to eliminate the increased volume of silver currency as a contributory cause of this higher price level in India do not appear to have been successful.

According to Mr. Dutt the economic effects of the rise of prices have been beneficial, and the progress and prosperity of India, as a whole, have been remarkable. He quotes figures about the absorption of gold and silver by the people and also of the export and import trade of the country in support of this view. It may be freely admitted that there has been of late some increase of wealth and also its diffusion among the masses. But the stories about the prosperity of the people of India must be accepted with great caution. The population of India is very large, nearly a fifth of the human race. To talk of a few millions of precious metals being annually absorbed by 300 millions as an index of their great prosperity sounds ridiculous. The absorption of the precious metals per head of the population should be shown and a comparison instituted between the average absorption per head in India and in the countries of the West. This honest and straightforward course perhaps serves nobody's purpose. So lump figures are given, and they are very often altogether misleading. In the same manner the figures of the export and import trade of the country cannot be taken as a real indication of the prosperity of the people. Most of this trade is in the hands of Europeans. They take up the greater portion of the huge profits made in it. It is only small bits and crumbs that fall to the sons of the soil. Even these are welcome in the present condition of the country. So wretched is their lot! Yet in the face of these facts to repeat incessantly stories of the enormous prosperity of the people, is neither good sense nor sound policy. They may do very well for the edification of audiences in Westminster Hall. But they are sure to leave behind them a feeling of irritation in the minds of those who discern the real inwardness of these figures. After all money is *not* wealth. That old fallacy has been exploded long ago. If a man gets twenty rupees instead of ten, but has also to spend the whole amount in buying the same quantity of goods as before he does not improve his position. It cannot add to his wealth or his happiness. The only pleasure he enjoys is that of handling a larger number of coins. "There were golden bricks in Lanka, but they had to part with one for a shave!" This does no one any good. If a real improvement is to be effected in the condition of the people, their intelligence must be quickened, their energy strengthened, and their efficiency increased. And agencies other than high prices are necessary to bring about this change.

THE INDIAN ATMOSPHERE IN ENGLAND

BY MR. HARENDRA N. MAITRA.

THE present European war has produced a very important tendency in the national atmosphere of England—that is to say, one of respect and sympathy for India and the Indian cause. How far that will reach we cannot say now, but this much is certain, that if only we all do our best to keep up this spirit of respect and sympathy, a great change for the better is sure to take place in the affairs of India. It was indeed a stroke of statesmanlike policy on the part of the deputation of the Indian National Congress to announce at the very start of the War that the welfare of India depended first and foremost upon the Imperial well-being. This announcement, together with the noble and Orient-like lavish gift of men and money, has awakened in England an entirely new sense of friendship and respect for the Indian subjects of King George.

It is no small thing to have aroused such sentiments as these in the breasts of a nation, whose ideas and ideals of life and civilisation are so different to those of India. After all it is love and sacrifice alone which can eventually change the very foundations of the world.

“The world is our kinsman.” This has ever been the motto writ large upon the national life of the Hindus. It has been their privilege to know and to realise from the very beginning of civilisation this first principle of humanity. They have never desired to speak ill of any religion or sect—never to close their doors against any, but always to give lavishly to the outside world. They have contributed to the Christian Churches and to the Mosques and Musjids without any demur. That self-sacrificing spirit of the Hindu race now permeates the whole of her civilisation, and to-day it is astonishing the European world.

Why is it that India is standing by the side of Britain and freely giving her of her men and money in this crisis?

Is it because we are one of the units of the Empire? Is it due to this Imperial obligation that we have sent our men and contributed our money? This may be the opinion of some, but we hold a different view. It is partly due to this Imperial obligation certainly, but it is due in a much greater degree to India's spirit of self-sacrifice. She knows well that in this war the

cause of Britain is the right cause, and that is why she has proved herself so splendidly alive to the situation, and will respond to its demand to the best of her ability.

Now this spirit of self-sacrifice, which India has shown in the present hour, has drawn the attention of every man and woman in the United Kingdom. From the king to the peasant there has arisen in all a feeling of admiration for the Indians. The whole of the British Press—including even its Conservative organs—are now engaged in praising India and her soldiers in a way which, if we can properly make use of it—not, of course for selfish ends—but for the welfare of the great Empire, of which we are an intrinsic part, will serve to solve many intricate and long-standing problems.

But how long this spirit will continue to be apparent in the pages of the Conservative Press is very doubtful. Only a short time before the War broke out, the Conservative section of the British Press, headed by the *Times*, printed disgraceful observations upon India and her people. But we must realise that the *Times*, with its vulgar sneers at “the so-called educated Indians,” by no means represents the opinion of the British public. It is only a certain factor in the moulding of a section of it.

But by far the larger section of the British public is now-a-days keenly interested in Indian questions. In particular a large section of the labouring class have begun to think of India, not as Imperialists, but as fellow-beings drawn by the same chord in the resistance of oppression and the expansion of their common life.

This war has naturally quickened this inherent sense of justice in the English people. Although Parliament is the final arbiter of all political questions, yet the people who work in the factories, who till the ground, who keep trade and commerce going—the grocer, the barber, the shoemaker—these are in reality the political sovereign to-day.

The question therefore arises, what can India do to interest these people more and more as time goes on? Of course it is a great thing to make an attempt to educate the opinion of the members of Parliament; but will they listen? At the present moment at any rate they are far too busy; to mention India to them now is a thankless task.

This is natural. Moreover, at the immediate conclusion of the War, they will be busy settling the many home questions which are pressing them so acutely.

What, then, is to be done? Let us say again that the foundation upon which we must build in our attempts to influence the nation is the man-in-the-street—who, *pari passu* with the declaration of peace, will be the dictator of Europe.

Indeed, the ideas of the man in-the-street with regard to India have undergone a vast change. All this confirms the opinion that India is sure to be recognised as a great Imperial asset in the near future. But a great deal more depends on us. If we can rightly grasp the present situation, we are sure of the great victory—the prize for which we have so long been striving—some adequate measure of self-government. But we must strike while the iron is hot. We must send our very best men and women to plead our cause. The Tory Press will again raise its head, and must be fought. It must be part of our duty to keep the Indian mind ready for the work in England, which is awaiting it after the War. Great is our need of men and women, who will conjointly work in revitalizing our national aspirations. The days of the great war will be remembered as the birth-hour of a new aspect in English national life. The old form of Liberalism is dying out, and in its place a broader type of Liberalism is daily gaining ground. Indians who desire to work for their country will have to be keenly watchful of this rising English sentiment, and they must equip themselves accordingly.

As an example of the appreciations of our fellow-countrymen which are now flooding Great Britain, we will quote from a recently published letter from Lord Roberts written shortly before his death:—

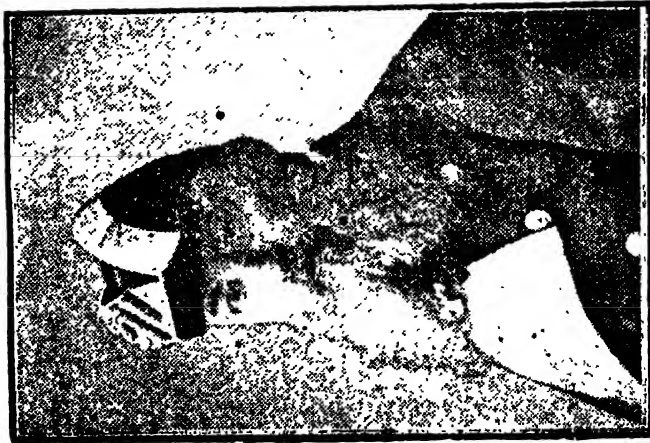
“The loyalty of the Indian soldier is proverbial. There are many nationalities, creeds and castes in India, and at one time or another during the establishment of British power in the country we have tried a fall with all of them. The result may be briefly stated. When they fought us, they fought bravely and well, and often gave us quite as good as they got. When we finally prevailed, we shook hands, they became our good friends, and in the most arduous circumstances they have repeatedly proved their loyalty and devotion to their salt. Many instances in support of this statement could be given, many within my own personal experience. More than once a native soldier has tried to shield me with his own body when bullets were flying. I will conclude

these brief remarks with one example from the pages of Macaulay, relating to the defence of Arcot by Clive: “During fifty days, the siege went on. During fifty days the young Captain maintained the defence with a firmness, vigilance and ability which would have done honour to the oldest Marshal in Europe. The breach, however, increased day by day. The garrison began to feel the pressure of hunger. Under such circumstances, any troops so scantily provided with officers might have been expected to show signs of insubordination, and the danger was peculiarly great in a force composed of men differing widely from each other in extraction, colour, language, manners and religion. But the devotion of the little band to its chief surpassed anything that is related of the Tenth Legion of Cæsar or of the Old Guard of Napoleon. The sepoy came to Clive, not to complain of their scanty fare, but to propose that all the grain should be given to the Europeans, who required more nourishment than the natives of Asia. The thin gruel, they said, which was strained away from the rice, would suffice for them. History contains no more touching instance of military fidelity or of the influence of a commanding mind.” This appreciation, hastily written, may perhaps convey some idea of the brave men who have eagerly crossed the stormy seas to stand shoulder to shoulder with us in the battle line. With feelings of pride and gratitude we have accepted their aid.”

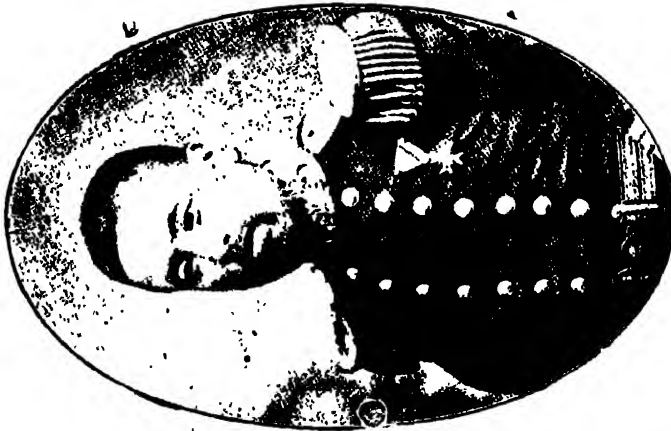
We are grateful to Lord Roberts for his high appreciation of Indian soldiers. If such are the men who form the Indian Army, how much more must be the deep sense of feeling for the Imperial welfare of the educated Indians—who are the representatives both of the army and of the people? Yet how often have their voices gone unrecognised!

Indian men, fired with a devotion for their country and their Empire, are sacrificing their lives; Indian women are not grudging to send their nearest and dearest to the battlefield; will the English Democracy suffer India to remain a subject race, or will her people be considered as true and real citizens of the Empire? India wants national autonomy with British control. She will remain a strong limb of the Imperial body.

Let us have, in fact, an Indo-Britain Imperial Federation, in which each nation will be her own arbiter under Imperial suzerainty. We appeal to the future England—the England that is going to be re-shaped according to the true interests of her people. May the day be with us when it will be universally recognised that there is no greater sin on earth than the destruction of liberty.



GRAND ADMIRAL VON TIRPITZ.
Secretary of State for the German Navy.



ADMIRAL DEWA.
Commanding the Japanese Fleet.

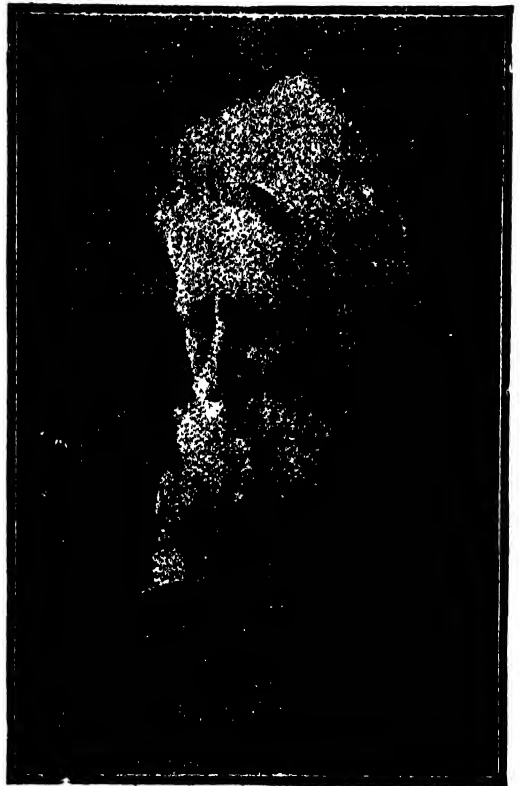


ADMIRAL BOUE DE LAPEYRIERE.
Commanding the French Fleet.

TWO GERMAN PROFESSORS JUSTIFYING THE WAR.



ERNEST HAECKEL.



RUDOLF EUCKEN.

ECONOMICS OF THE WAR

BY PROF. ANDREW TEMPLETON, 'M.A., B.D.,

(OF THE MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.)

At the close of the day, August 1, before a single shot had been fired, and before any destruction of wealth had taken place, the money market in London showed how serious even then was the economic condition of the world—the London Stock Exchange was closed for the first time in its existence. Everyone in business owes and is owed money, has assets and liabilities. The whole business and financial community, which is now worldwide, is tied together by the nexus of creditor and debtor. It is like a house of cards. If one large debtor, on whom the whole community counts to pay his debts “falls down,” they all may do the same. If in normal times one large debtor’s failure may produce at least a local crisis demanding sometimes special legislation, we can guess at the far-reaching effect when the debtors are whole nations.

Although 1913 was a record year for Great Britain’s trade yet the present crisis has come on the top of a long period of unrest and depression, unrest due to the Balkan Wars, rumours of greater wars, tension in Europe, revolution in Mexico, depression due to overtrading in Canada, the Argentine, Brazil and other new countries. And although these conditions have not affected Britain seriously, nevertheless she is perhaps more sensitive than any other nation to the thrills in the monetary world. London is the centre of all finance; Germany is her debtor—so are most of the nations of Europe. Now in days when even the primitive method of paying debts, *viz*, by shipping actual bullion is unsafe, we cannot expect the intricate machinery of credit, trust, and bills to be left unaffected. England is the creditor of the world; as a matter of fact it is estimated that at any one time there are probably in the market in London £300,000,000 of bills for the account of nearly every country in the world. Now without multiplying detail the position is simply this: a considerable portion of these bills are on foreign countries, if not those we are actually at war with, then those that are directly affected by the war. At the first whisper of trouble on the Continent, London was deluged

with bills; now bills change hands many times in their short life, and this rush simply meant that the people who at the moment had the bills in hand did not wish to take any risk and naturally turned to London to have these bought by the Banks there. In normal times of course there would be no difficulty for this vast and delicate machinery of credit works wonderfully smoothly. Now the Bank holds the bill till it becomes due, and those whose undertakings have been financed thereby remit money to the bank when the bills reach maturity. It is apparent that unless this stream of remittances continues to flow without check, the banks cannot continue to purchase the bills as they come forward. There is a sudden stoppage, a sudden blow to credit which has the same effect on the discount market as the cutting of a main cable in a great electric power system—soon the whole system comes to a stop. As a matter of fact it required only two or three days, from July 28 to 31 to paralyse the market completely. The connection was cut and the remittances ceased to flow. The immediate result is what we saw in the belligerent countries, money became scarce and interest rose to entice it, bills were plentiful and for the great risk discount rose abnormally high. But a feature emerged in the London market which is absent in any purely internal crisis. The whole world owes very large sums to London. They cannot now pay them; Germany and Austria must wait until the war is over and the others until the moratoria that have been declared are at an end and the exchanges become normal. If it is unpleasant for a debtor to be unable to pay his debts, it is much more unpleasant for a creditor not to get them paid, and this is the position in which London has been placed.

Internally there was an immediate rush by depositors in banks for gold, of which there was a probability of hoarding if there was the slightest evidence of shortage in currency. To meet this difficulty the Government “agreed to provide the banks with an ample supply of £1 and 10s. notes to the extent of 20 per. cent. of their deposits.” But there was still the difficulty of the payment of bills falling due and to meet this the Govern-

ment declared a moratorium, or postponement of debts for one month applicable at first to bills of exchange only, and then made more general to cover all payments and contracts with certain specified exceptions.

It may not be out of place here to ask what exactly is implied by a Moratorium. Now, however unwise in normal times it may appear for a Government to interfere in the finances of a country, nothing but praise can be given to those responsible for the extraordinary boldness that has saved many from bankruptcy and the nation from a crisis. When credit had disappeared she stepped in and made herself responsible by guaranteeing to the Bank of England the repayment of debts at present uncollected; and recently she has gone further and arranged to guarantee the loss by loans made to members of the London Stock Exchange. By this means she hopes to make permanent the work begun in the moratorium. A moratorium as the name implies is always a temporary measure. A moratory law, as the authorities express it, is "a law passed in times of emergency postponing for a specified time the due date of the bills of exchange and other obligations." Now whereas on previous occasions, i.e., in the case of the Balkan States and of France in 1870-71 it is generally continued till the end of the war, Government in the present instance by its bold undertaking has made the continuance of the moratorium unnecessary. The significance of this will appear later. Meanwhile let us note the immediate purpose of a moratorium is to save a total collapse in the nation's finances. This is not the same thing as insolvency—for the assets, as in the case of London, may be very great—and yet a moratorium be necessary. But the shock of war so disorganised the finances of the world that even if those who in London were more creditors than debtors, being cut off from those to whom they had lent, had been pressed for payment at home on their bills becoming due, would have gone bankrupt; and so we would have seen the anomaly of the prosperous becoming bankrupt amidst their prosperity. Now obviously this could only be a very temporary condition, and the temporary moratorium was to save embarrassed prosperity from the unfair reward of improvidency. Thus we read that under the Postponement of Payment Act 1914, that "whereas His Majesty has power by proclamation to authorise postponement of the payment of the Bills of Exchange, or any negotiable instrument, And whereas it is expedient that provision should be made for the purpose of such post-

ponement of payment we have thought fit by and with the advice of Our Privy Council to issue this Our Royal Proclamation." Now this proclamation at first extending over one month, and then later over two months, was in respect of any Bills of Exchange, "being a Bill of Exchange dated before 4th August 1914 or in respect of any such contract." But reservations were made, and the proclamation did not apply to (1) any payment in respect of wages and salary; (2) rates; rents and taxes; (3) maritime freight; (4) debt from any person resident in the British Island; (5) dividend or interest; (6) liability of a bank note; (7) old age pensions; (8) insurance; (9) payment under the Workman's Compensation Act, etc.

In regard however to the Moratorium we must specially note, what is self-evident when we remember that in France, the Moratorium already declared may continue till the end of the war, that its object is to save from Bankruptcy, those whose solvency has been undermined as the result of the exceptional war conditions. It does not mean total suspension of payments; indeed it is implied that all who can pay are in honour to themselves and their country under the obligation not only of personal contract, but national welfare bound to pay if at all possible. But unfortunately like many another effort to alleviate, it has been subject to abuse by the unscrupulous. We saw that when payment of the Bill was postponed, interest was charged upon it for the period of extension; this charge was at the rate of 5 per cent. During the same time of strain we also saw that the discount charged by the Bank approached 10 per cent. Now many who could very well pay the Matured Bill at the beginning of August, but who also saw the possibility of extension of trade, or of making money, when the bank interest was high retained their ready cash; and by accepting the opportunity the Moratorium gave them of a delay of another month at 5 per cent., they were able to use their gold to bring in 10 per cent. Now obviously this is an abuse; the Moratorium was never meant to stop payment where payment was possible, but to delay payment where enforcement would result in Bankruptcy.

It is not difficult to see how a war of destruction might easily be carried on in this nation, where the currents are so delicate and subtle as well as by land and sea and air. And Germany with her usual thoroughness had ready a formidable bomb to throw into the London Market. The dislocation of the money market would have taken

place to some extent in any case, but it could not possibly have been so bad, but for that which was made a direct instrument of war. Germany has many British Securities amounting to millions; about the middle of July when war was inevitable with France and probable with Britain, she immediately launched into the London Market these Securities, willing to sacrifice a million or two if only she could produce a panic. The immediate result of course was the lowering of their value and sudden scare on the part of those who held similar securities, and a rush to sell lest they might still go down. Financiers are persuaded that this was a real act of war on the part of Germany—for it affected not only those who held similar securities but by withdrawing money from the London Market it touched the whole body of Depositors. How nearly she succeeded we have said enough to show, and we cannot praise too highly the promptitude of a Government which saved her from an annihilation quite as real as that from which the Expeditionary Force was saved at the Battle of Mons.

Now if it is true that money is the sinews of war, and that it can be used as a weapon with such amazing affect it is not out of place to ask, having seen Germany's method of attack, how far she herself is vulnerable. We know that Britain was not alone in her financial troubles; she met them temporarily by the Moratorium; how has Germany acted in the same circumstances? With her wonted thoroughness she has been preparing for this crisis for years; the last effort towards its completion was the sale of foreign securities before the opening of the war—thus drawing to herself as much gold as she possibly could. We may take it then that initially Germany was better prepared for immediate eventualities than her neighbours, but her vulnerability makes its appearance when we take a larger view of the situation. After all once the first shock is over, the question becomes how can the belligerent countries find the necessary money, *i.e.*, by what methods and then how long can she continue to find it. Speaking generally Britain is already in a position of comparative safety. None of the countries is itself self-sufficient; all with the possible exception of Russia are dependent even for the bare necessities of life on others; trade cannot proceed unless the world is open to the nation in question; she must live on herself; and however possible this may be in times of peace, in war when millions are being spent unproductively exhaustion must inevitably come.

The German fleet is in the Kiel Canal, her merchantmen are either captured or rendered useless, soon there will not be a single German vessel on the water highways; to Britain the sea-routes are open, thousands of her vessels are ploughing the deep from pole to pole, her navy is setting watch over the impotent Germans. Germany is being forced back upon her resources, which are steadily disappearing in shell and smoke; the ends of the earth still calls upon Britain to work for her by sea, and the people who need her products may still have them.

It is true that she too must see her savings pass away in smoke—but she is still productive, she is still filling the coffers that war is emptying, she is still carrying on "business as usual." Apart then from previous preparation, apart from the fact that the world's supplies are still open to her obviously even if things remained on the battlefield as they are, she would live, while her enemy had ceased. Further credit of any kind must ultimately have a gold basis—it must have at least a material basis. Destroy that basis, credit must cease. Impoverish it and you have taken the first step towards its disappearance; and everyday that passes without replenishment of its material basis is a day nearer the end.

In view of this it is interesting to note the methods adopted by Germany to raise the necessary loans. Dr. Karl Helfferich boasts that this loan has been made entirely from amongst his own people and adds that the participation of neutral countries was not invited in it. This is scarcely true since a serious effort was made by the Germans to float some of the loan in the United States, but America would not touch it. But our business is not with such questions, but rather to examine the nature of the method of this loan, with its possible effect upon the war.

According to an official statement, the subscription to the War Loan, which was closed on 19th September 1914, produced the following result:—

Imperial Loan	3,121,001,300 marks.
Imperial Treasury Notes	1,339,727,600 „
Total	4,460,728,900

The contributors were encouraged, some would say compelled, to transfer their bank accounts from the Bank to the War Loan, to get money on their property, etc., and hand it over for the same purpose in return for which they received the piece of Government paper. This paper could be taken to a bank and money received for it, of course not always the face value of the note;

and if the owner of the paper wished to participate in a second War Loan, he could sell it at a loss, hand the money over to Government and so on. Now obviously there is a limit to such a process; for when you pawn your war loan bonds to apply for a bit of the next war loan, and go on pawning *ad infinitum*, the credit you possess is being steadily eaten away. "Hard cash" is disappearing. Ultimately everything is being paid through the War Loan. Neutral countries, to whom Germany is a debtor, have no choice—they are told that the money due them has been invested in the War Loan, and they have to accept War Loan Bonds at a certain interest. Now apart from the criticism to which a method so high-handed is open, obviously this is payment by instrument of credit, whose only strength lies in its material basis. Now if the material basis is being whittled away, credit grows steadily less; if the country is cut off from trade and bullion loans from other countries, there is no means of refilling the quickly emptying coffers. This is Germany's position. And be it noted, at the opening of the war, not to speak of the results since, her credit was not so good as Britain's. The best guide to the comparative credit enjoyed by the various Powers is afforded by the statement of interest offered on their leading stocks at current prices:—

	£	s.
Austria	4	18
France	3	18
Germany	4	3
Great Britain ..	3	10
Russia	5	0

This means that Great Britain can raise money in normal times on terms very much cheaper than Germany. And here are the facts concerning the recent loans made in the two countries. In Britain, the Chancellor of the Exchequer obtained the right to sell Treasury Bills to the sum of £150,000,000. He issued these in lots of £15,000,000; for every lot there were subscribers five and six times over, so that many had to go away disappointed in their wish to participate. But what is most significant he did not require to raise the interest above 3½ per cent. Later he sought to sell £350,000,000 Treasury Bills; again there was no need to raise the percentage.

Germany, on the other hand, has from the first required to pay 5 per cent. and with her waning credit and no compulsion, future loans would require to be made at a much higher rate. But in this land where "Might is Right," it does not follow that economic laws no more than the

moral laws of obligation will be allowed to express their inevitable tendency in the price of money. We need not, therefore, take it that because this interest is not raised that therefore the credit is not depleted; appearances may be what they may, we cannot alter the inevitable fact. Thus Britain's primary advantage has been enhanced beyond recognition by the situation at present on the continent—but there is more to add before we can in even a general way calculate the chances from the financial point of view.

In the first instance then it is credit and the continuance thereof that will have to work itself out, thereafter when that has disappeared the actual bullion behind it will be eaten up. The credit of Britain is incomparably greatest; the chances of its continuance are innumerable strongest. The possession of international credit as distinct from merely national is of the greatest importance; Britain has it, Germany has none. Now as to the actual Bullion held by the Powers at the opening of the War, the Banks of the five Great Powers give this return:—

Austria	£64,200,000
France	189,700,000
Germany	84,500,000
Great Britain ..	40,200,000
Russia	174,500,000

These sums only become available as a war chest if their primary functions as a backing of paper currency and credit were suspended. And further the amount of the bullion is not a test of the credit enjoyed by the nations. Britain's gold reserve is the lowest, but it is the most valuable because it forms the backing of an immense volume of credit of international value. But against this reserve we must put the national debts of the various countries:—

Austria	£794,000,000
France	1,315,000,000
Germany	741,000,000
Great Britain ..	707,000,000
Russia	900,000,000

Now it seems to us that so far as the national debt is concerned, the point which affects a nation's borrowing power now is whether loans have been made on it during the last ten years, or whether part of it has been paid up. Both Germany and Austria have borrowed. While Britain has been paying off debt, Germany and Austria-Hungary between them have increased their national debt by the enormous sum of about £300,000,000.

Remembering then that the cost of the war, which at the beginning for Britain was about

£5,000,000 per week and is now nearer a million per day and for Germany about £8,000,000 per week and now nearer £1 millions per week, we may take it that so far as financial resources go, evidence is strongly in favour of Great Britain. At a time when practically every continental bourse is suspended, the London Stock Exchange is now continuing its operations, and the first shock over the Banks and the Money Markets are doing the same. No country stands alone, all will lose, but if the power of the largest purse means anything, the Allies should win. If the war lasts long enough to allow of the inevitable results of the various methods coming to a full issue, then a catastrophe is overhanging Germany; and with reverses multiplying it may be that sooner than her arms fail her, living upon herself as she is now doing, the collapse will come in the most nervous part of her organism by the utter impoverishment of the Sinews of War.

But after all money only is what money does; and the first essential is its power of Exchange for the necessities of life. We cannot have these if there is no money; nor can we have these, however much money we have if we are cut off from supplies. We have seen the probable result of the first contingency, what about the second? A nation may be starved into submission—if it is not in the happy position of being able to supply all its needs. In the days of the Napoleonic wars this was true of all the nations, to day it is not. It will be of interest therefore to take stock of those that are entirely self-supporting and those that are not, and see how they have been placed in the present crisis. Any calculation that can be made must necessarily refer to normal times—and we must therefore remember that a very considerable decrease in productivity must be allowed for in the time of war. Russia as a food-producer is self-contained and can even lend substantial help to others. France, Austria and Hungary can support themselves. Britain and to a less extent Germany cannot. Belgium so far as immediate future harvest is concerned is hopeless. Germany may have laid in vast stores, but the manufacture of her bread now with a mixture of potatoes and flour is not reassuring; in any case the need for men for war purposes must seriously affect her coming harvest, and help from abroad is impossible. England free from invasion will sow and reap as usual, while the harvest fields of the world's greatest wheat producers are open to her. Luxuries may be dispensed with, but bread all must

have. Here Russia is supreme; next to United States she is the greatest wheat producer in the world; France can look after herself—so might Austria if her lands are not devastated. The question then of food supply narrows itself down to the position of Britain and Germany. Britain raises about 65,000,000 bushels of wheat on an average each year and imports 217,000,000; Germany grows 149,000,000 bushels and imports 67,000,000. Evidently then Germany is not so badly off in normal times, but if the 67,000,000 are cut off and harvests are shortened because of the exigencies of war, her position is disquieting. The position then is Russia has abundance; France raises more than 10 per cent. of the wheat she requires; Germany roughly 60 per cent. and the United Kingdom a little over 40 per cent. each. The situation takes on a new complexion however when we turn to the source of the supplies. Britain's supplies come chiefly from within the Empire, Canada, Australia and India. This is indicated by the following statement:—

	Wheat in Cwts.
From British Empire	50,700,000
„ United States	34,100,000
„ Argentine	14,800,000
„ Russia	5,000,000
„ Rest of World	1,300,000
Total	105,900,000

So far as the war is concerned, the chief point here is that Britain draws very little grain from the continent and can easily dispense with these while other sources are open; they are likely to continue open throughout the war, and a long continuance of it will stimulate the production of wheat. She may rest content on this score.

Very different is Germany's case with her closed ports. Germany is more dependent for her wheat on the continent especially Russia, with whom she is now at war. Here is a table showing the importations for a year:—

	Cwts.
From Russia	11,168,440
„ Argentine	10,928,780
„ Canada	5,390,600
„ United States	8,930,240
„ Australia	6,451,800

None of these sources are now open to Germany, while the harvest for 1914 may not have been properly garnered while that for 1915 will be sown and reaped under trying circumstances. The ad-

vantages in this matter are all on the side of the Allies.

In regard to meat Britain is much better off so far as home production is concerned. She herself produces 60 per cent. of the whole supply, while for the remaining 40 per cent. she can well depend upon Canada, United States, the Argentine and Australia. Apparently then the closing of the German and Austrian ports is not of much importance to the United Kingdom so far as food-stuffs are concerned. Meat famines have not been unknown in recent years in Germany owing to her protective policy, and now even if she would she cannot augment her meat supplies from abroad. The situation then so far as the belligerent countries are concerned is this: Russia, France and Austria are self-supporting, Germany and the United Kingdom are not, both are dependent on outside supplies, especially Great Britain—but while she can obtain these supplies from outside, Germany cannot. Moreover, the closing of the German ports must divert to British markets supplies that would otherwise have gone to Germany, and so the prices will tend to be kept down for the Briton.

But this leads us to another consideration as to the re-disposition and re-distribution of trade during the war and the legitimate prizes of captured industry after the war. Meanwhile the German export trade has been almost completely cut off; it is well nigh impossible for her to obtain raw materials; the same remark applies to Austria-Hungary; and the importance of this can only be estimated when we remember that Germany follows Britain very closely in the export of the same kind of goods. Now it is true that the war has deprived Britain of many of her European customers, but just as it is true that her indispensable imports came from places outside of Europe, so her exports are chiefly sold to places out of Europe. The following analysis of her trade for 1913 shows this:—

	Imports from	Exports to
	£	£
<i>Enemy Powers—</i>		
Germany	80,500,000	40,700,000
Austria-Hungary	7,700,000	4,500,000
<i>Allies and Neutral European Powers</i>	221,000,000	133,400,000
Total	309,200,000	178,600,000
Rest of the World	459,800,000	346,900,000
Grand Total ..	769,000,000	525,500,000

Comparatively speaking the war should have but a limited effect upon this trade—since trade with enemy powers though considerable is not after all a large proportion of the whole; whereas the competition of Germany and Austria-Hungary is cancelled, and the British manufacturer is free from the assaults of his most formidable competitor. The following analysis of the German and Austrian trade for 1912 makes this clear:—

	Imports.	Exports.
	£	£
<i>Germany—</i>		
Food and Animals	157,400,000	39,200,000
Raw Materials	289,200,000	116,600,000
Manufactures	79,100,000	284,600,000
Total ..	525,700,000	440,400,000
<i>Austria-Hungary—</i>		
Food & Raw Materials	83,600,000	40,000,000
Manufactures	64,600,000	73,900,000
Total ..	148,200,000	113,900,000

On the one hand we see the serious position Germany must be in, cut off from such extensive imports, but what is significant for us just now is the large export in manufactured articles that has also ceased. Between them Austria-Hungary export close on £400,000,000 of manufactured articles. This is the opportunity that the war has thrust upon those, whose hands are sufficiently free to take it. To America and ourselves this is very significant, for the articles manufactured are especially those both are interested in—particularly Britain. Without giving a complete list here are some of the chief exports for 1913:—

	£
Iron and Steel	.. 66,900,000
Machinery	.. 33,900,000
Electrical Goods	.. 14,000,000
Dyes, etc.	.. 13,000,000

Now obviously in regard to the first three, there is room for Britain seizing as a prize of war many markets already occupied by Germany. Germany's success in these directions, it must be remembered, is the result of great industry and application, unparalleled initiative, and earnest devotion to science, and any who seek to compete with her or usurp her place must be prepared to meet great demands. But the point is, there are few things which she can manufacture and we cannot; it is true that in dyes, chemical stuff, etc., we have never competed, and yet it is just here that the British Board of Trade has shown itself alive to

the possibilities. It is not often a Free Trade Government subsidises a trade, and yet this is exactly what has been done. A Committee with Lord Haldane as Chairman and served by some of the ablest British Scientists is at work. Special reports have been obtained from the Trade Commissioners in the colonies regarding the German imports, particular articles are noted for special attention in each of the colonies, and the possibility of their manufacture in some part of the British Empire is being considered. It is too soon to prophesy regarding special branches—though it is difficult to see how Britain will fail to take the opportunity of producing more electrical instruments, dynamos, batteries, arc lamps, etc., for while Germany exported £8,000,000 of these, Britain exported £2,500,000—to mention only one of many possibilities; but it seems well-nigh certain that if she is successful in the war there opens before her a yet wider future of usefulness.

Let it not be forgotten for a moment however that meanwhile the whole world is poorer because the nations of Europe are locked in deadly conflict. Even those people who have taken European products may not have the money to purchase any longer. Demand is not what it was, and it is not simply a matter of Britain or America stepping in and picking up something that is endowed with anything like permanence and previously possessed by Germany. The position of India serves as a warning against a task apparently simple or hopes that are too sanguine. On the West Coast there has been hardship because the continent and chiefly Germany has ceased to take the coconuts and groundnuts; cotton has had a check; jute and hemp have been held up. Fortunately Italy is beginning to take the hemp.

India is emphatically a producer of raw material, and the pity is that her industrial development is not sufficiently far advanced to seize this opportunity of using her own raw material and

producing the articles themselves. Just because of this she is hit both from the side of export and import, and she is asked therein to bear not only the burden of Empire but the burden of the whole world, for in the meantime we all stand to lose. Britain cannot take all she produces even if she so desired.

To the countries at war she exported goods to the following value:—

	£
To Austria-Hungary ..	4,834,774
Belgium ..	8,758,162
France ..	10,502,714
Germany ..	16,575,543
Russia ..	1,328,576

The total export to those countries then is just under £42,000,000.

India stands to lose practically the whole of this; these are the plain facts of the case. Now as she has been fulfilling the obligations of Empire in Europe, she may expect a fuller recognition of her rights. It is apparently not sufficient in India's present position to point to sugar, matches, glassware, etc., and say there is her opportunity. Efforts in this direction have already been made and have failed, and the causes have not always been financial but inherent in the conditions and to some extent it may be in herself. But if the Board of Trade at home thinks it so far wise to subsidise the dye trade, is it not possible that this may also be an occasion for an alteration of the Government policy in the matter of India's industrial evolution?

Forgetting not the warnings then, relieved from arrogance and pride, saved from a prospect too ideal, we may rest content that the economics of the war indubitably indicate success to the Allies. Britain's "place in the Sun" will neither fade nor diminish, nor will the ethics of the superman supersede the ethics of the Carpenter of Nazareth.

Indian Industrial and Economic Problems

By V. G. KALE, M.A.,

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MODERN FRANCE : HER TRIBULATIONS

BY PROF. FERRAND E. CORLEY, M.A.,

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HE history of modern France hinges on the Revolution and on the figure of Napoleon, the man in whom the Revolution in some sense culminated, however little the Imperial *régime* may seem to harmonize with the genius of the Revolution as a whole. These two factors have in the main determined the problems and the evolution of French politics during the succeeding century. In domestic affairs, the Revolution has powerfully affected both the forms and the principles of French life. Since the Revolution, the Constitution has always been a dominant interest in French politics. The undefined traditions of the *Ancient Régime* had been swept away; constitutionalism, in one form or another, was inevitable.* The many experiments during the Revolution itself might prove abortive: but the successive crises of her subsequent history argue that France can never again rest content with anything but a clear and authoritative statement of the form her government is to follow. Something in the nature of a constituent assembly, defining and sanctioning the fabric, must furnish a legal basis for the actual political order. No less decisively, the Revolution has given a democratic cast to French political principles. The restoration of the monarchy in 1815, the resuscitation of the Napoleonic Empire, must not be allowed to obscure the tenacious adhesion of the nation to the principles which the Revolution had endeavoured to formulate in the familiar triad, Liberty, Fraternity, Equality. It is on this rock that the monarchic efforts have eventually split. The sentiment of democracy, the conviction that every man should have his part as a free citizen in a free state, more than any attachment to particular forms, has made modern France so persistently republican.

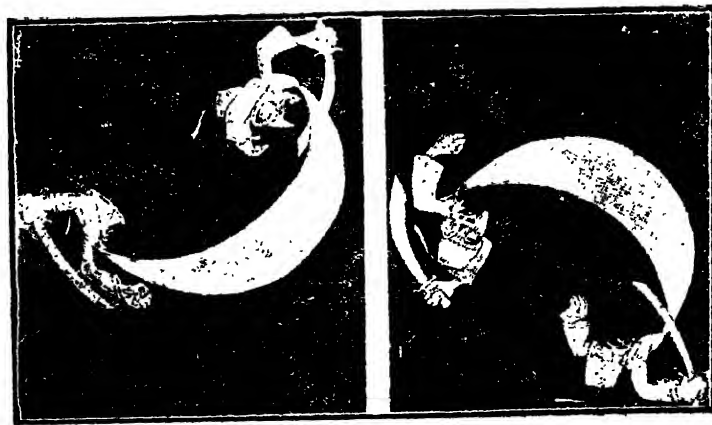
But it is not only in home affairs that we can trace the leaven of the Revolution. It left a powerful impress also on the European position of France. The fever of revolutionary enthusiasm, infecting other lands, made France in a special sense, what the gifts of her children well fitted her to be, the leader of European thought. At the same time, the excesses of the Revolution, and the menace of anarchy which they begot, raised up against France a legion of enemies. The suc-

cessive coalitions of her European neighbours against France, rendered doubly necessary when the ambition of Napoleon threatened them with a personal and dynastic domination, placed her in a position of antagonism to the older governments which has continued to modify her foreign relations. Bitter experience has taught France not to repeat the Revolutionary aberration of forcing her own principles on other states at the point of the sword. But she has not forgotten her mission as a leader of the nations. Her ready disposition to foster and encourage the spirit of nationality and liberty, as shown by her intervention in Greek and Italian affairs, is part of her inheritance from the Revolution. The repeated co-operation of France and Britain in international crises, and the cordial understanding between the two nations which has culminated in the present war, would hardly have been possible but for the community of their ideals. However they may differ in the form of their governments, both nations are actuated by the same conviction of the worth of national liberty, which predisposes them to sympathy with those who are struggling to be free.

The influence of Napoleon is less easy to define. It is his misfortune that the dazzling brilliance of his military career has obscured the world's perception of his real claim to greatness as a ruler. But the ordered national system and the carefully elaborated code of law, characteristic of France to-day, are largely the work of Napoleon. It is in this, rather than in his external politics, that Napoleon embodied the forces of the Revolution. In each successive turn of the kaleidoscope—and the turns have been many—the pattern given to France by Napoleon has shown a marked consistency. The trappings of the Empire have come and gone; the work of the Emperor remains. Hardly less powerful has been his influence on the external politics of France. His surpassing military success covered France with a glory and inspired her with an appetite for ascendancy which have not been unmixed blessings either to her or to the world. For good and for evil, it is impossible for France, so long as the influence of Napoleon survives, to be content with a “back seat.” The good side of this may be



CARNEGIE: "I ALMOST WISH I HAD
MY MONEY BACK!"



THE OLD AND YOUNG TURKS.

Will it be the Moon's last quarter ?



THE PIED PIPER.

seen in that high sense of international responsibility, that responsiveness to the call of other nations in their straits, already referred to. Unfortunately, the Napoleonic tradition has sometimes taken the form of a restless activity, a disposition to domineer, which other nations have pardonably resented, and which her enemies (and notably Bismarck) have been enabled to work upon in order to place her in a position of dangerous isolation. Further, the dynastic career of Napoleon, by bequeathing a heritage of unsatisfied ambition, and a supply of dangerous precedents, has furnished a sinister complication to her politics. The aims, real or supposed, of successive pretenders, from Louis Napoleon to Boulanger, have militated against stability. They have imparted a spirit of unrest to her internal atmosphere and reduced her strength in international relations. At the same time, the memory of Napoleon contributed much to those traditional antagonisms to France maintained by England and Russia, and even more disastrously by Prussia, which have been responsible for the most serious external difficulties which France has had to encounter.

The supreme task, therefore, set to France as a nation during the last hundred years has been how to conserve what was best in the heritage of the Revolution without succumbing to the danger of its extremes. The achievement of this task has been pursued, amid all the ups and downs of fortune, with a remarkable concentration of purpose, which the ebb and flow of sentiment must not cause us to overlook. A brief review of the history of France may serve to throw it into relief:

The triumph of the European allies at Waterloo was followed by the Restoration of the Bourbons, not so much as an expression of the will of France as by the overwhelming force of the victors. Bereft of Napoleon, France was no match for the forces against her; she had no choice but to accept the Restoration. Even so, the Bourbons might have hoped for a long lease of power, had they possessed the genius to give France, along with the internal peace and the confidence of her neighbours, which the Napoleonic régime had rendered impossible, the personal liberty, the recognition of the rights of man, which England had learnt to enjoy under a constitutional monarchy. But, as the classic dictum runs, the Bourbons "had learnt nothing, had forgotten nothing." It soon became apparent that in place of liberty, of which France had not tasted in vain, the old era of privilege and oppres-

sion was the Bourbon ideal. At the same time, the impotence of France among the Powers, though partially ameliorated by her intervention in the affairs of Spain and of Greece, was not likely to be cured by the Bourbons and their reactionary ministers. The dominance of priest and noble was as little to the mind of a France that had drunk of the springs of the Revolution as was the secondary position now assigned to her in the councils of Europe. The new wave of national feeling, and of aspiration on the part of the masses, which passed over Europe about 1830, leading (amongst other things) to the recognition of Belgium as a separate state, vibrated through France, and the Bourbon monarchy was unequal to the shock. Yet we may see how far the nation was from the desire to plunge into revolutionary extremes when we look at the form taken by the political upheaval of 1830. The "July Monarchy" of Louis Philippe represents the desire to achieve constitutional liberty—to combine democratic freedom with that stability and sanity of procedure which monarchy seemed to promise better than the somewhat discredited forms of republican government. But the compromise thus attempted was unsuccessful. The personal qualities of Louis Philippe, his good qualities no less than his defects, had the result of estranging rather than conciliating sympathies. An usurper in the eyes of the Legitimists, he could never count on the adhesion of the monarchic party, while the strongly personal character of his government exasperated the more democratic sections of the country. Republicanism, growing stronger in its appeal to moderate men in proportion as its earlier excesses faded from memory, became in increasing measure the political creed of France. Perhaps its most serious set-back came from the violence of the extreme wing, the "Red Republicans," who recalled the fanaticism of the eighteenth century, and whose outburst, like that of the "Commune" in 1870, cost France a heavy toll of lives and treasure. No doubt, also, the recognition of the need of a strong controlling hand, if the best, and not the worst, harvest of republicanism was to be reaped, contributed to the success of Louis Napoleon as candidate for the Presidency of the new Republic, and to the later ratification by the people of the Prince-President's *coup d'état*. Thus the Second Republic of 1848 gave place, in 1851, to the Second Empire, with Louis Napoleon as Emperor under the title of Napoleon III.

The history of the Second Empire forms one of

the most interesting chapters in the story of modern France. Its failure is to be attributed in part to the personality of the Emperor, who was really overweighed by his self-chosen rôle, in part to the relentless nemesis which offered the humiliation of France as the readiest means for the man of "Blood and Iron" to accomplish his dream of a united Germany. The first years of the Empire (down to 1860) were strongly autocratic in character, and the Napoleonic legend was supreme. The successful intervention of France against Russia in the Crimean War, and against Austria in the liberation of Italy, did much to restore the prestige of France, and to enable her to feel that she was again a power in the world. At the same time the activity undertaken in Syria, China and Indo-China contributed its part in making France once more a great colonial power. But external glory, though deeply gratifying to the Frenchman, could not by itself satisfy him. The personal rule of the Emperor ran counter to the instinct of freedom. Napoleon III, whether from generous impulse (a marked feature of his character) or from prudence, endeavoured to satisfy the demands of his countrymen by the development (from 1860 to 1870) of that "Liberal Empire," which is still an enigma to the historian. The experiment seemed to be approaching a successful completion when the fevered foreign policy of the Emperor's advisers, buoyed up by the baseless self-confidence of an incompetent, if not corrupt, Ministry of War, plunged the country into the disastrous war with Prussia which speedily became a war with Germany. Miscalculations as egregious as those of Germany in the present crisis left France without an ally, a prey to an enemy too strong for her. France proved that the ancient spirit was not dead in her by the superb heroism of her resistance. But the flower of her armies was betrayed by the bungling of her generals at Metz and Sedan, and the improvised levies of the later months of the war, though magnificent in courage, and skilfully handled by men like Chanzy and Faidherbe, could not cope with the seasoned corps of Germany. In the throes of the war itself the Empire fell, and the German Empire was born. Beaten to her knees at last by the surrender of Paris, France was made to pay an enormous indemnity (two hundred millions sterling) and to cede the frontier provinces of Alsace and Northern Lorraine to the conquerors, German troops remaining in occupation of French fortresses till the indemnity should be paid. The bitterness left by this humiliation, as every one is

aware, has been one of the main strands in the entanglements that led up to the war of 1914.

Never has the greatness of the French people been more fully revealed than in the wonderful recovery of the next forty years. Their superlative thrift made it possible to pay off the whole of the indemnity by 1873—in little more than two years from the signing of peace. Not only so, but the increasingly heavy burdens of military service in the building up of a new national army, and colossal expenditure on the fortification of the north-east frontier (so dangerously near to Paris), have been shouldered most manfully. Indeed, the recovery of France was so rapid that in 1875 it seemed probable that Germany would strive to protect herself by crushing her adversary afresh. The danger, if real, was averted by the diplomatic intervention of Russia and Britain—a fitting augury of the great Alliance of to-day. Moreover, the building up of her colonial empire, especially in Africa, went steadily on; and in spite of all her sufferings, France has uncontestedly maintained her position as one of the Great Powers. The annexation of Alsace-Lorraine by Germany has had the most unfortunate results for European diplomacy by rendering any permanent understanding between the two countries impossible. France has shown no disposition to provoke a war for the recovery of the lost provinces. But it was not to be expected that she could finally acquiesce in their loss. All the world knew that if France fought Germany again, and if she won, she would reclaim her own.

Apart from the *Levanche*, the most serious crises in French foreign policy concerned her relations with England, war with whom was but narrowly averted at the time of the Marchand Expedition to the Sudan. Happily, the good sense of the two nations kept them from war; and the successive understandings reached with regard to African and Colonial affairs have steadily developed into the *Entente*, which has proved so great a factor in the affairs of the last ten years. The continued German menace also drove France to seek an alliance by which her safety might be guaranteed. As long ago as 1881, a distinguished French publicist sketched for his country the following programme: "The Balance of European Power is the end towards which our national policy should tend, now that France is able to look beyond herself. This policy does not bring a nation glory, but it enables it to live with honour and security. That balance can only be maintained by means of alliances. France can find opportunity to ally herself now with Eng-

land, now with Russia, now with Italy, and now again with those three Powers simultaneously, if a common and compelling interest urges such a coalition in the interest of European equilibrium, threatened by the predominance of Germany, strengthened by Austrian support." The programme has been strikingly fulfilled. The adhesion of Italy to the Germanic Powers, however hollow it has since proved, made her alliance with France impossible. Nevertheless, an important understanding on Mediterranean affairs was reached in 1901, and the reluctance of Italy to contemplate war with the sister Latin nation has been unmistakable. The alliance with Russia became an accomplished fact in 1894 and 1896, and the solid backing which England has given to France since the conclusion of the *Entente*—notably in 1904-5, in 1908, and in 1914—has had the substantial value of an alliance. The fact that France, in 1905, submitted to the German demand for the dismissal of her Foreign minister, M. Delcassé, and that the Powers of the Triple *Entente* declined to push their views to the point of war in 1908, may be taken as a sufficient evidence of devotion to the cause of peace. But the harmony between the Powers remained unshaken, alike through the Morocco crisis of 1904, the Balkan crisis of 1908, and the later incident of Agadir in 1910. Its stability was finally shown in August, 1914. Thanks to her alliance with Russia and her good understand-

ing with England, France has been able to take the field without misgiving against her foe, while the achievements of her armies in the field have shown how greatly everything has changed since 1870.

Internally, the Third Republic has justified itself as successfully as in foreign policy. Against clericalism and ultramontaniam on the one hand, against the extremes of syndicalism on the other, France has resolutely maintained her determination to conserve the fruits of the Revolution by the combination of freedom and settled order. The monarchist intrigues, acute enough in 1871, when the Republic had to make head against a National Assembly, actually installed, of predominantly monarchist sentiments, have receded more and more into the background. Neither the Legitimist pretender nor the military adventurer of the Napoleon-Boulangier type would command much support in France to-day. The great natural resources of the country have been wisely husbanded, as the financial strength of France in the present war has shown. France stands before the world to-day as a great state, well-knit, vigorous and competent, not bellicose, yet not unprepared to fight for her vital interests, conscious of her strength, and determined to use it for the development of her national purpose. The whole world may rejoice at the proved sufficiency of the Republic, guided by humane and liberal ideals, in face of the reactionary tendencies of Prussian militarism.

HOLLAND.

BY PROF. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A.

ALTHOUGH the little country which English-speaking people call Holland has so far been fortunate enough to maintain its neutrality, its proximity to Germany and Belgium, with all that that implies, is naturally attracting much attention to it, and a short historical sketch of its past may, therefore, be of interest at the present time. The official designation of the country is not Holland but the Kingdom of the Netherlands. That name is, however, hardly a hundred years old, and has been somewhat inappropriate ever since 1830, the date when Belgium, composing half of the Netherlands, revolted and became an independent Kingdom. Before the changes introduced by the French Revolution the country, over which Queen Wilhelmina now rules, was known as the United Provinces. Holland was one of these provinces and

as it was by far the most important of them its name was frequently given to the whole country. Holland contained Amsterdam and Rotterdam the chief ports, the Hague the official capital, and other important towns. The wealth and enterprise of its merchants made its name known throughout the world, and it was, therefore, not unnatural that the whole confederacy of little republics became known by the name of its leading state. It is more surprising that we do not call the inhabitants of the country by the name Hollanders, but designate them by a term which was formerly applied generally—as indeed it is still by the British sailor—to other peoples of Germanic origin. The Germans call themselves Deutsch, and in former times we used to distinguish between the High Dutch who lived inland and the Low Dutch who lived on the coast, and

who spoke different dialects. Now we have come to restrict the term Dutch to the inhabitants and language of Holland, and we do not apply it even to the kindred Low German peoples found in Belgium and on the coasts of Germany.

The history of Holland down to the middle of the sixteenth century is very much the same as that of Belgium. Like Belgium it for centuries formed part of the Roman Empire, and when the Teutonic invasions took place, it also passed into the hands of the Franks. One difference, however, may be noted. Holland seems all along to have been more purely Teutonic, and the Frisians and Saxons who inhabited the northern parts were probably closely akin to the Teutonic invaders of Britain. Like the rest of the Netherlands it formed part of the Middle Kingdom brought into existence by the Treaty of Verdun in 843, became in time part of the Duchy of Lorraine, disintegrated into several provinces, all of which ultimately came into the possession of the Valois Dukes of Burgundy, and passed with the hand of Mary, the heiress of Charles the Bold, into the possession of the House of Hapsburg. The marriage of Philip, the son of Mary and the Emperor Maximilian, to Juana, the heiress of the crowns of Castile and Aragon, united the Netherlands with the crown of Spain. Charles their son, the future Emperor Charles V., was born at Ghent in 1500, and during his reign the Netherlands enjoyed much prosperity. They formed part of the Empire, being included in the 'circle' known as Burgundy, and their connection with Spain opened up to them a vast field of trade—an opportunity of which they were not slow to take advantage. Antwerp, no doubt, was by far the most important centre of trade, but it was during the first half of the sixteenth century that Amsterdam laid the foundations of its future commercial greatness.

The connection with Spain had, however, less fortunate results for the Netherlands. The sixteenth century witnessed the movement towards absolute monarchy in Europe, and the Hapsburg Sovereigns who had crushed the liberties of Spain were little inclined to recognise the rights of the Estates in the Netherlands. The question was complicated too by the spread of the doctrines of the Reformation. Charles V. was a good Catholic, even though his soldiers might on occasion sack Rome and commit atrocities worse than those of the Huns: and his son and successor Philip II. was the champion of the Counter-Reformation. Such men could not brook the existence of heresy in their dominions, and

hence the Spanish Inquisition, that dire weapon for the suppression of both political and religious liberty, was introduced into the Netherlands. Its introduction led in time to the famous Revolt of the Netherlands and to the creation of a new independent state in Europe.

On the abdication of Charles V. in 1556, Philip II. succeeded to all the Spanish and Burgundian possessions of the Hapsburgs. A thorough Spaniard he did not get on well with his northern subjects, and in 1559 he left the Netherlands never to return. He appointed his half-sister Margaret of Parma, as Regent, and she in accordance with her instructions governed entirely according to Spanish ideas. Persecution went vigorously on. Spanish troops garrisoned the fortresses, and the old liberties of the Provinces were disregarded. The leading men in the Netherlands at this time were Count Egmont, Admiral Horn, and William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, known to history as William the Silent, for whom Charles V. had had a great affection, and who had been appointed by him to be Stadtholder, *i.e.* Governor, of the three provinces of Holland, Zeeland and Utrecht. Their remonstrances proved futile, and the nobles at last, when a petition they had presented had been curtly refused, formed themselves into a confederacy in defence of their rights. The members of the confederacy called themselves *Gueux*, *i.e.* Beggars, from an insulting epithet which one of Margaret's advisers had applied to the petitioners. The general excitement soon led to an unfortunate anti-Catholic outbreak on the part of the populace in 1567. Churches were pillaged and images destroyed. The Regent was helpless, but Orange and Egmont restored order and persuaded her to abolish the Inquisition and make other concessions. Philip, however, was determined to have revenge and to extirpate heresy. The Duke of Alva was sent with a Spanish army into the Netherlands which were now quite peaceful, and by both his civil and his military measures showed how a country may be ruined most effectually. Egmont and Horn were seized and executed. Thousands of people were put to death, and thousands more fled to England taking with them their industries and their skill. Antwerp sunk into a position of no importance, and its trade went elsewhere.

William of Orange had succeeded in making his escape into Germany. He now declared himself a Protestant and tried to organise resistance to the Spanish tyranny. His early efforts proved unsuccessful, for Alva had cowed the remaining Netherlands. In 1572 a number of Dutch

sailors who were leading a semi-piratical existence, with their headquarters on the east coast of England, succeeded in capturing the town of Brill, and this success of the 'Beggars of the Sea,' as they called themselves, was the signal for the rising of the Northern Provinces. William the Silent was invited by the Provinces of Holland, Zeeland and Utrecht, to become their Stadtholder in place of Alva. He returned from Germany and put himself at the head of the movement. Thus began the famous struggle which has been chronicled by Motley in the interesting pages of his *Rise of the Dutch Republic*. Alva was recalled and for a time it looked as if all the seventeen Provinces would unite to throw off the yoke of Spain, but the military skill and the conciliatory attitude of subsequent Governors, notably of Alexander of Parma, the son of the former Regent Margaret, succeeded in rogaining most of the Southern Provinces for Spain and Catholicism. In 1579 the seven Northern Provinces formed the defensive union of Utrecht and two years later they renounced their allegiance to Philip II. They were Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overijssel, Friesland and Groningen, and these seven became known as the United Provinces.

It was at this time that an attempt was made to unite all the Netherlands under the sovereignty of a French prince, Francis, Duke of Anjou, the brother of Henry III. of France. There were close relations between the Dutch and the French Protestants, and William the Silent had married a daughter of Admiral Coligny, the most illustrious victim of the massacre of St. Bartholomew. Francis, of course, had no sympathy with Protestantism, but it was the official French policy to annoy Spain in every possible way, and the scheme had the support also of Queen Elizabeth. Francis was at the time one of her suitors and though she had no intention of marrying him, she saw that he might be useful as a foe of Philip's. Francis, however, was a worthless person, and the whole scheme proved a fiasco or worse. The Dutch now decided to make William himself their sovereign prince but just at this time the Spanish plots for assassinating him at last proved successful. William of Orange was shot in Delft in 1584, and the Dutch were deprived of the leadership of the great man to whom they owed their independence.

After the assassination of William the Silent the position of the Dutch seemed so desperate that Queen Elizabeth was compelled to come to their assistance openly. Owing to the incompetency of the Earl of Leicester the help given was

not very great, but indirectly it was most useful. Philip turned upon the English and during the rest of his life his main energies were devoted to the war with England, and to the war of the League in France against Henry IV., the first Bourbon king. William's young son Maurice also proved himself to be a brilliant soldier, and the affairs of the country were directed by the sagacious statesman John Van Olden Barneveldt, the Grand Pensionary or Chief Minister of Holland. Gradually the Dutch drove the Spaniards not only out of the seven United Provinces but also out of parts of some of the other provinces notably Northern Brabant and Limburg, until at last in 1609 Philip III. of Spain was compelled, sorely against his will, to conclude a truce for twelve years.

During all this time the Dutch had been growing more powerful at sea and their commerce had been spreading all over the world. In 1580 Philip II. had annexed Portugal to Spain, and thus the Portuguese colonies and the Portuguese trade in the East had become the prey of the enemies of Spain, and the Portuguese monopoly of the trade route round the Cape of Good Hope had come to an end. The Dutch East India Company was founded in 1602, and soon Holland had become the dominant power in far eastern waters, especially in the Malay Archipelago. The trade in spices passed mainly into the hands of the Dutch, and while Lisbon and Antwerp declined, Amsterdam grew in importance till it became the leading commercial city in Europe. Peace and prosperity soon led to internal troubles. The political constitution of the United Provinces was of a peculiar character. The confederation was composed of seven little republics, each of which had its own government consisting of the Estates and a Stadtholder. Each of the republics was really a confederation of towns, and all the political power was in the hands of the burghers. Thus the provinces were for the most part governed by oligarchies of wealthy burghers, amongst whom the citizens of Amsterdam held the most prominent place. Each province had an elected Stadtholder, and in five of them, including Holland, the Prince of Orange was Stadtholder. The estates of each province sent representatives to a central body which was known as the States General, and there was also a central Council of State. The States General elected the Captain General of the Army and the Admiral General had the control of military affairs, but foreign affairs were kept in the hands

of the estates of the provinces. The Stadtholder was a member of the Council of State and appointed the burgomasters of the towns. Holland had a dominating influence in the confederation, and it is not surprising that friction arose between the burgher aristocracy of that province and the house of Orange. It is hardly too much to say that the internal political history of the United Provinces for two centuries is the record of the struggle between the oligarchic republicans and the house of Orange supported by the nobles, the clergy, and the common people—in a word, by all the classes which the republican aristocracy sought to exclude from political power.

In the time of Maurice the conflict was complicated by theological controversy associated with the name of Arminius, a professor in the University of Leyden. Maurice posed as a strict Calvinist, while the leading representatives of the republican party adopted the new views. Civil war nearly broke out, and Maurice taking advantage of the situation brought about the condemnation of Olden Barneveldt and Hugo Grotius, the father of modern International Law. To the everlasting disgrace of Maurice, Olden Barneveldt was executed in 1619, but Grotius fortunately succeeded in escaping. Maurice died in 1625 and was succeeded as Stadtholder by his half-brother, Frederick Henry, from whom the present Queen of the Netherlands is descended.

The expiry of the twelve years' truce with Spain nearly coincided with the outbreak of the Thirty Years War, and the United Provinces soon found themselves involved in that great conflict. They played no very prominent part in it, but when the Peace of Westphalia was made in 1648 their independence was formally acknowledged. Henceforward they formed a part neither of the possessions of the King of Spain nor of the Holy Roman Empire. During the continuance of the War, which coincided with the period of the struggle in England between the Crown and the Parliament, the Dutch went steadily on increasing their commerce and their maritime power, and became the great carriers of the world's trade. They drove the English traders out of the Eastern Archipelago, and the bitterness caused by their actions there and especially by the infamous massacre of Amboyna combined with maritime rivalry to estrange the former allies from one another for a period of half a century. The Navigation Laws passed in the time of the Commonwealth and renewed under Charles II. were

specially directed against the Dutch carrying trade, and the hostility found expression in no less than three wars between England and the United Provinces. Ultimately, however, the danger of the growing power of France made the English and the Dutch draw together again. In 1668 the Triple Alliance between England, Holland and Sweden prevented Louis XIV. from annexing the Spanish Netherlands, and the third of the Anglo-Dutch Wars which began in 1672 was unpopular in England and was the outcome not of national feeling but of the tortuous foreign policy of Charles II., who by the secret treaty of Dover had promised to assist his cousin Louis XIV. in his schemes for territorial aggrandisement.

Louis XIV.'s attack upon Holland in 1672 had important consequences both for the character of the government of that country and for the future history of Europe. About twenty years before an important change had been made in the system of government. William, the son of Frederick Henry, who succeeded his father as Stadtholder in 1647, was an ambitious young man. He had married an English princess, the daughter of Charles I., and although the English monarchy was in straits at the time, his connection with one of the great monarchies of Europe made him anxious to increase his power. He tried by a *coup d'état* to overthrow the constitution and to seize Amsterdam, the centre of the opposition. He failed to capture Amsterdam, and before he could do anything more he died of fever. A few days after his death in 1650 his only son William, the future King of England, was born. The republican party now got the upper hand. It was agreed to leave the office of Stadtholder vacant, and to divide the powers of the Captain General and the Admiral General between the States General and the Provincial Estates. This really meant that the chief power in the country passed to the Estates of Holland, and John de Witt, the Grand Pensionary, a very able and patriotic man, became the real ruler of Holland. When Cromwell made peace with Holland in 1654, one of the conditions was that the House of Orange should be perpetually excluded from the Stadtholderate—a condition to which De Witt had no objection. When the Restoration took place in England, this Act of Exclusion was revoked but by the Perpetual Edict of 1668 it was declared that the civil and military powers were to be divided and that the same person could not be at once Stadtholder and Admiral and Captain General. It was arranged

that the young William should take command of the army at the age of twenty-two. The republican party, while strengthening the navy in which its power lay, deliberately kept the army weak. Hence when Louis XIV. declared war upon Holland in 1672, he met at first with no resistance. A wave of intense popular feeling put William at the head of affairs, and De Witt and his brother were brutally murdered by an infuriated mob in the Hague. William organised the defence of his country. The dykes were cut, Amsterdam was saved, and time was given for the other European powers to intervene.

The importance for Europe of this war was that it showed clearly the goal of Louis XIV.'s ambition and the means by which he intended to reach it. As clearly as the present war has revealed to the nations of the world the objects and the methods of German policy, so clearly did the attack on Holland reveal to the European powers of that time the fact that Louis XIV. had deliberately adopted a policy of aggression with a view to making France the dominating power in Europe. The Dutch had ventured to thwart his policy in the Spanish Netherlands, and the insolent race of traders and heretics must be crushed. He stood revealed as a menace to the rest of Europe, and it was that revelation that led to the formation of the great European alliances against him. For forty years the struggle went on, and during thirty of them William of Orange was the organiser of the opposition with which Louis met. The aggrandisement of France meant, he saw, the destruction of Holland, and cold and reserved as he might appear to be, he was consumed with an ardent love of his country and often defeated though he was in battle, he yet succeeded in his policy. The Treaty of Nimeguen in 1678 gave Louis not a single foot of Dutch soil, and the treaties of Ryswick in 1697 and of Utrecht in 1713 marked the failure of Louis' schemes and the exhaustion of France.

But though Louis failed to conquer Holland, its decline as a great power may be said to date from his attack upon it. For its protection against France, it became largely dependent upon other powers and especially upon England. One of the reasons which led William to put himself at the head of the revolt against his father-in-law, James II., was his recognition of the fact that the English alliance was of the utmost importance in the conflict with France. His constant complaint against the English was that their insular position made them fail to recognise the serious-

ness of the political situation on the continent, and possibly he would have sometimes resigned the English Crown had it not been for his love for Holland. After his death the alliance continued and during the war of the Spanish Succession the Duke of Marlborough was made Captain General of the Dutch Forces. By the Treaty of Ryswick the Dutch had been given the right of garrisoning certain fortresses in the frontier between France and the Spanish Netherlands, the region where such deadly fighting has been going on of late, but Louis XIV. had turned the Dutch troops out in a high-handed manner. By the Treaty of Utrecht, the Dutch regained these barrier fortresses though the Spanish Netherlands now passed into the possession of Austria.

On the death of William, the Stadtholderate was left vacant, and the office was not revived till 1747. During these years Holland usually followed the lead of England, and the maritime powers, as they were called, generally acted together until the rupture in 1780. When England, therefore, took part in the war of the Austrian Succession on the side of Maria Theresa, the Dutch in 1743 did the same. The French, however, proved victorious in the Netherlands, and a French invasion of Holland in 1747 led to political results similar to those of 1672. The Orange party came into power, and it was resolved to resuscitate the Stadtholdership. The representation of the Orange family at the time was another William, the son-in-law of George II. of England. He was appointed Stadtholder of all the seven provinces, and the office was declared to be hereditary in both the male and the female line. Thus the Stadtholdership became practically a hereditary constitutional monarchy. The old rivalry, however, between the two parties in the state did not die out. Forty years later in the reign of William V. civil war nearly broke out. The republicans encouraged by the French, who disliked the English connexion of the Orange family, sought to abolish the Stadtholdership again, but Frederick William II., the King of Prussia, whose sister was married to the Stadtholder, marched an army into Holland and restored the power of his brother-in-law. When the French Revolutionary War broke out the republicans at first welcomed the French. The Stadtholder fled to England in 1794, and next year the Batavian Republic was set up. The close connexion between France and Holland, which continued for the next twenty years, led to the capture by Great Britain of many of the Dutch colonies. Some of these were

restored when peace was made, but others, notably Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope, were finally retained.

The Dutch did not find their connexion with France an unmixed blessing in other ways also. Large sums of money were requisitioned from them and their interests were made entirely subservient to those of France. Once and again the constitution of the Batavian Republic was changed by Napoleon, and at last he transformed it into a kingdom for his brother Louis, the father of the future Emperor Napoleon III. Louis proved to have the interests of his subjects too much at heart, and opposed the various measures ordered by Napoleon, to the anger of the domineering Emperor. He could at last stand it no longer and abdicated, whereupon in order to carry out his continental policy the better, Napoleon declared Holland annexed to France. In 1815 the Congress of Vienna restored independence to Holland, united with it the Austrian Netherlands and placed on the throne of the new Kingdom, William I., the son of the late Stadtholder. To compensate the King for the loss of some family possessions in Germany, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg was given to him. This personal union, which till 1866 gave a right to a representation in the Diet of the Germanic Confederation, continued till 1890 when on the accession of Queen Wilhelmina, Luxemburg passed to the representative of the Nassau family in the male line.

The union between the two parts of the Netherlands so long separated did not turn out a success. The lapse of time and the differences of their historical development had created two separate peoples differing from one another to a great extent in language, religion and economic interests. The opening of the Scheldt, which had been closed to commerce by the Dutch for two hundred years, indeed allowed Antwerp to resume its old position in Europe as a seaport of the first rank. But the growing prosperity of Belgium did not reconcile the people to the enforced union, for they felt that the Dutch regarded and treated their country as a conquered province. In 1830 a riot in Brussels developed into a revolution. The Great Powers intervened, and Belgium, by the Treaty of London in 1831, was recognised as an independent State. The Dutch refused to accept this treaty, but ultimately did so in 1839 when the definitive treaty was signed and half of Luxemburg was handed back to the King of Holland. William I. abdicated next year

and was succeeded by his son William II., who in 1848—the year of revolution—gave Holland a more popular constitution than it had hitherto enjoyed. He died in 1849 and was succeeded by his son William III. who reigned till 1890. He had no son and was succeeded in that year by his little ten-year old daughter Queen Wilhelmina. In 1901 she married Prince Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and they have an only child, the Princess Juliana, who is the heiress to the throne.

The causes of the importance of Holland nowadays are two in number. Its colonies and its geographical position make it an object of great interest to its powerful neighbour. Though a little country containing an area of only 13,000 square miles and a population of a little over five millions, it has a colonial empire measuring in extent over 780,000 square miles and containing more than 36,000,000 inhabitants. Java, which was given back by the British after being captured in the Napoleonic wars, is by itself sufficient to excite the envy of a country on the look-out for colonial expansion. Further, Holland holds the mouths of the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt, not to mention smaller streams, and it is still one of the great commercial countries of the world. It is not surprising, therefore, that the advocates of the expansion of Germany regard it as the manifest destiny of Holland to be absorbed into the German Empire. The Pan-Germanists speak of the Teutonic origin of the Dutch, and of their being originally part of the old German Empire, but that kind of argument has about as much relevancy as Napoleon's plea for the annexation of Holland on the ground that it was composed of soil brought down by rivers which rose in France. The old Dutch spirit of independence still remains, and it is certain that if they are attacked they will seek to defend themselves. It does not seem likely that they will be called on to do so. The Allies have no intention of emulating the example of Germany in violating the neutrality of small independent states, and though Germany would violate the neutrality of Holland without scruple if it would bring her any advantage, at present at all events it is to her interest that Holland should remain neutral. The Allies are, however, really fighting amongst other things for the independence of Holland, for it is certain that if the plans of Germany had not been frustrated by the present war, Holland would have been one of the first countries to fall a victim to the German ambition for a world-wide dominion.



AN UNCOMFORTABLE POSITION.

Evening Star, Washington



QUEEN HELMINA OF HOLLAND.




MARS RUNNING AMOK.

When once he's loosed, who can hold him?

THE HINDU UNIVERSITY

[We publish in this issue the second instalment of the Symposium on the Hindu University Scheme. The opinions of Messrs. Govinda Das, R. G. Pradhan, and the Hon. Mr. Baij Nandan Prasad were received in August last. The latest proposal of Government agreeing to place the "extraordinary" powers, vested previously in the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, in the hands of the Government of India, is no doubt an improvement, though the promoters of the Scheme will certainly be more pleased to have complete freedom in the management of the University for which they have been working so wholeheartedly for some years past. We sincerely trust the time is not far off when the Hindu University will enjoy the complete freedom and independence, which similar bodies in other countries own with pride.—Ed. J. R.]

XII. BY ANNIE BESANT.

 HE position of the Hindu University is but little improved by the new proposals of the Government. One clear gain is made by the placing of the "extraordinary" powers, vested previously in the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, in the hands of the Government of India. It is definitely stated that they are "emergency" powers; but the reserving of such powers show that there exists in the minds of the officials a distrust which is entirely undeserved by the responsible and well-known gentlemen who are guiding the University Scheme. If the Government does not trust these gentlemen, why should they trust the Government, and risk all the money collected from the people on a University, National only in name? Under these powers, on a supposed emergency, all effective control may be taken out of their hands.

The transfer of these objectionable powers from the Local to the Imperial Government is, however, a clear gain.

When we come to the election of the Chancellor which appears to be so great a concession, we find that the gain is illusory. The Lieut.-Governor disappears as Chancellor, to reappear as Visitor, and as Visitor he wields all the ordinary powers which are wielded by the Government or the Chancellor in the existing Universities. What then is gained? The University may elect an officer dubbed "Chancellor," but his powers are vested in another person. The Hindu University is to be like "the existing Universities," under the "ordinary" powers vested in the Lieut.-Governor and the "extraordinary" powers vested in the Government of India. Why then have a

Chancellor or tuck a University? One more Government-controlled University added to those already existing, and differing from them in being built out of the people's money, given voluntarily, instead of out of their money taken in taxation, is not what Hindu India wants. She wants a National University controlled and shaped by her own men. If she cannot have a Government Charter for this, let her forego the Charter and establish the University, pressing the industrial, technical, scientific and commercial side of education, and standing on her own legs. India needs chemists, physicists, engineers, mechanicians, merchants, much more than she needs graduates in arts, and while the latter are being dependent on Government and the learned professions for their livelihood, the former need no such patronage. If the Princes and big Zemindars and Manufacturers would employ such men, well-trained, in preference to men trained in Government Colleges, the future of such a National University would be secure. And it would be free; free to plan, to experiment, to initiate, free from compulsion to waste money in unnecessarily costly apparatus, and from subjection to extravagant Education Department architects and surveyors.

Such a course would be a bold one, but it would arouse public enthusiasm and public support. A "Hindu University" tied hand and foot to the Government, and with a figure-head for a Chancellor, will arouse neither. To stand alone needs courage and endurance, but these are the *sine qua non* of Indian progress. Until India is bold and enduring, she cannot be free.

XIII. BY HON. BAIJ NANDAN PRASAD.

HE enthusiasm evoked in the Hindu community by the self-sacrificing efforts of the selfless Malaviya and the Maharaja of Durbhanga to establish a Hindu University has not been surpassed in living memories or even in history. But great as was the enthusiasm no less has been the disappointment and discontent caused by the letter of Sir Harcourt Butler.

Lord Curzon's Universities Act virtually made the Indian Universities into official institutions and the public naturally felt a desire to have national Universities working on national lines with national ideals. They longed for a truly national institution with at least a reasonable measure of freedom to frame its courses of education, to select the text books, to employ the teachers and professors, to appoint the examiners, and to disseminate the culture best suited to the national ideals and temperaments. The proposal for such a University met with general approval and the promoters of the movement have not spared time and trouble to get the necessary funds or promises therefor. From the beginning the Government must have known what the country was wanting and if the Government of India or the Secretary of State were of opinion that the proposed denominational Universities cannot be kept up to the mark except by such extraneous official interference and control as is inconsistent with the very idea of a national University which seeks to live its own life, it would have saved much heart-burning and discontent if they had in the initial stage told the promoters frankly that they do not see their way to support the scheme. Even now Sir Harcourt Butler's letter keeps us much in the dark as to the possible future attitude of the Secretary of State as to the details. The letter says that the Secretary of State reserves his final decision on the details of the University until they are before him in the form of a draft bill and regulations. So nobody knows what his final decision may be. The extensive, almost omnipotent, powers given to the official Chancellor make the University only nominally non-official. The Chancellor can interfere

not only in the appointment of the staff, but can also appoint the examiners. New faculties cannot be instituted, nor can colleges be affiliated even within the narrow limits of Benares without his approval. Sir Harcourt says that many of the powers sought to be vested in the Chancellor are only emergency powers which may never be exercised and can be exercised only very occasionally. But, where is the guarantee for all this? When powers are vested in an individual it must be presumed that they are meant to be exercised when that individual deems proper. How and when they will be exercised will depend on the person so vested. The one chief reason why the Viceroy is to be preferred to a Lieutenant-Governor as Chancellor is that the Viceroy comes fresh from the English atmosphere and is generally free from Anglo-Indianism which saturates many of the Lieutenant-Governors. It must be admitted that sometimes we have good and sympathetic Lieutenant-Governors as we have had Viceroy's but in the majority of cases the reverse is the case. Moreover the appointment of the Lieutenant-Governor as Chancellor detracts much from the Imperial character of the University. It is said that students from all parts can join the University and in this sense it will be Imperial. But in this sense even the most insignificant school can claim to be an Imperial institution as there is no prohibition against any person joining it. As for myself I would prefer an Indian non-official Chancellor.

The powers sought to be vested in the Chancellor and the restrictions imposed on the University make it a lifeless institution and not worth having. It is impossible to appreciate the manner in which the Government of India have been dealing with this great question.

Education means the bringing out of the best and the highest in man. The idea that this cannot be done till the state steps in at every step and dictates who should teach, what they should teach, and who should examine, has something of the grotesque in it. Education is an art, and the ruler of the Province may or may not be an expert in it. This is a matter which should mainly be kept in the hands of those who have made the pursuit of

knowledge and the fostering of right ideas their aim of life.

The long delay in getting a definite reply from the Government has already considerably hampered the work of the promoters of the scheme and the restrictions proposed by the Government of India will make the task of collecting further funds very very difficult if not almost impossible.

It is proposed to approach the Government again to reconsider the matter. But is it worth while to prolong the period of anxious suspense? We can see that the improvements made by the Government during the last two years have been in the wrong direction. It may take another year or two to get a further reply to our representations and nobody can say what it may be. The first shock to the public feeling was given by the denying of the power of affiliations outside Benares or Aligarh, but now the University is being denuded of all power. Personally I would prefer an official University to a so-called non-official institution domineered by official influence. In an official University the officials are responsible for what they do, while in the case of the proposed University the persons who have paid the money and established the University will be responsible, but the official Chancellor will have every power worth having. Help from within is always invigorating while help from without is enervating. Walking on crutches for any length of time will make even a strong and healthy man a cripple. Gladstone had truly said 'defective instruction with freedom and self-government would, in the choice of evils, be better than the most perfect mechanism secured by Parliamentary interference.' Lord Disraeli preferred 'Oxford free and independent with all its anomalies and imperfections to an Oxford without imperfections but under the control of Government.' I think the only line of action consistent with self-respect now open to us is to give up the idea of such an officialised University and to start a University free from Government control, or failing that to start good schools and colleges and technical institutions, in the different parts of India where education may be given on national lines.

XIV. BY BABU GOVINDA DAS.

Sir Harcourt Butler's letter to the President of the Hindu University Society gives rise to some very sad and depressing feelings. Are these numerous *notables*, the product of a hundred years of English rule and education in India, who figure so prominently in this organisation, all *incapables* whom the Government dare not trust to manage, even with the ever-present guidance of its officials in the *background*, a concern in which they are all vitally interested, but must thrust its official Hierarchy into the *foreground* also on every possible occasion? Or is it that they have begun to imagine, though rather late in the day, that an unofficial University, even with the most ample safeguards, is much too dangerous an experiment to be permitted on Indian soil? In either case the position created is a most humiliating one, both for the rulers and the ruled and one which with all the good-will and loyalty possible it is impossible for any thoughtful person, with the least idea of self-respect to accept.

It is curious that the terms offered to the Hindu community are far more stringent than those that were offered to the Musalman community, and which they summarily rejected. Is it that the Government wishes to gauge the comparative pliability of the two communities?

In the words of the Bible we who were famishing and clamouring for bread have been offered a stone instead. And if we respectfully but firmly refuse the offer, do the advisers of the Government imagine that the odium of refusing the proffered gift will attach to the organisers of the movement and not to those who offer such undigestible fare? Every line of Sir Harcourt Butler's letter breathes distrust of the non-official element in the organisation. Under the fair guise of what it calls co-operation, it grabs all power so completely, that the non-official element is paralysed from the very start. It in fact adds insult to injury when it goes on to say in its most paternal manner that "the interest of the Government and the students and their parents in this matter are necessarily identical." If the Government had truly believed that the interests of all the

bodies concerned "are necessarily identical," it would certainly have seen its way to giving fully and generously all that was asked for, instead of doling out with such a hesitating and niggardly hand a thing which nobody wants. The difference between what we are being offered and what we pray for is vital and cannot be composed by any round-about processes of diplomacy.

Once again in the history of the world the Biblical Parable of the Talents has been exemplified, and we begging paupers have had even our coppers taken away; for this movement in its efforts to infuse a new University life into the Central Hindu College has jeopardized even the old life also of the institution. Its financial stability as an independent unit has been ruined by the Hindu University Society, and it is bound in all honour to make good the loss. I therefore fervently hope and pray that the patriotic donors and subscribers will not allow themselves to become down-hearted in face of the attitude of the Government, but will strenuously exert themselves to at least nurse and nourish very carefully this seed of a national institution and help it to grow in well-manured and well-tended ground so that if not in our life-times, it may in the time of our children and our children's children, become the sturdy mango-tree, nourishing with its luscious fruits of wisdom, the intellectually and spiritually famine-stricken sons of modern *Aryā-varta*.

Unfortunately a terrible war has broken out between our peace-loving Government in its efforts to keep the peace of the world unbroken and the huge continental military Empires of Germany and Austro-Hungary, ruthlessly bent on devastation and carnage, and when all the resources of the Empire are and ought to be bent to the one single purpose of destroying the power for mischief of these arch-enemies of civilisation, it is not proper that we should indulge in any agitation over this matter, but bide our time, holding aloft the ideal of an *independent* University till such time as the Government sees that we really deserve what we desire and concedes our demands.

In the meantime my constructive proposals

are that till such time as we get the Hindu University the monies received by the Hindu University Society be divided into three equal portions, each ear-marked to special uses. The first aim of every all-India movement should be to bring together in brotherly communion the Hindus of every Province and of every Feudatory State, and for this purpose one-third of the monies raised in any Province or State should be used in suitable ways, direct or indirect, for the special helping of students from that particular Province or State, as by allotting a proportionate number of seats in the Hostels or by grant of special scholarships in connection with the Central Hindu College. Out of the remaining two-thirds, the interest of one-third should be spent on the strengthening of the teaching staff, while that of the remaining third should be ear-marked for post-graduate travelling scholarships to foreign countries, so that like every self-respecting and civilised country in the world, we too may be able in time to have for the teachers of our younger generations, in all branches of instruction, those who are of our own blood and of our own faith, who will train up our children in the same loving, anxious and strenuous way as a father does his own children and which no foreigner with all goodwill possible in the world ever can.

XV. BY MR. R. G. PRADHAN, B.A., LL.B., M.R.A.S.

I am strongly of opinion that having regard to the special end and aim of the Hindu University, the offices of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor should be elective. The *raison d'être* for the Hindu University is that it aims at fulfilling a special mission, and supplementing the Government system of education on lines indigenous to the soil and better adapted to develop all that is vital and excellent in Hindu culture, thought and civilisation; and though the co-operation of the Government is desirable and would be most helpful, yet the University itself should as far as possible, be a self-governing institution. There is no reason why the *élite* of the Hindu community should not be given the requisite freedom for conducting one educational organ-

ization at least in the whole of India. The organizers and promoters of the Hindu University are all sensible men loyal to the core, and intelligent enough to realise that the full development of the Hindu University cannot take place if the Government would look upon it with suspicion; and, therefore, if they are granted a sufficient measure of freedom for managing the affairs of the University, they will be the last persons to abuse it. Excessive and undue control of the authorities might very often bring the University into conflict with them, whereas, if the University is allowed the freedom necessary for carrying on its affairs and generally for its natural development, the relations between it and the Government cannot fail to be uniformly cordial and friendly.

The reasons given by Sir Harcourt Butler for the proposal that the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces should be *ex officio* Chancellor of the Hindu University are far from satisfactory. The Hindu University will necessarily work on lines different, in many respects, from those of the Allahabad University; and whatever correlation of the work between the two may be necessary, those who would be responsible for the management of the Hindu and the Allahabad Universities may safely be trusted to bring it about. The Lieutenant-Governor would be quite able to help in the work, in his capacity as Chancellor of the Allahabad University; and it is not necessary that he should be *ex officio* Chancellor of the Hindu University also. There can be no doubt that any friendly and reasonable suggestions that he might make both as head of the local Government and of the Allahabad University would receive the fullest and most dispassionate consideration at the hands of the authorities of the Hindu University. As regards fostering a spirit of healthy co-operation between the two Universities, it can well be done, whether the Chancellor of the Allahabad University is or is not also the Chancellor of the Hindu University.

I therefore strongly hold that the offices of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor should be elective and the Hindu University should be a non-official, self-governing body; consist-

ently with a due regard for the interests of the Government.

I think the interests of the Government will be sufficiently safe-guarded, if they are given the right of nominating one-third of the members of the Senate.

But if the Government insist on having an officer as Chancellor of the Hindu University, I would suggest that instead of the Viceroy, or the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, the Indian Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council should be *ex-officio* Chancellor of the University.

As regards the proposal to reserve certain powers to the Chancellor, it is the worst feature of Sir Harcourt Butler's letter. It is a dangerous proposal and would make the Chancellor, whoever he might be, whether official or non-official, elected or appointed, the virtual autocrat of the University. It cuts at the very root of the principles underlying the Hindu University scheme. It betrays the greatest distrust of the promoters of the University and of those who would be responsible for its management. Even the Chancellors of the Government Universities do not possess such vast and arbitrary powers. I would rather have even the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces as *ex-officio* Chancellor of the Hindu University, *provided it is allowed perfect internal autonomy*, than that its Chancellor, even though elected, should possess such enormous and autocratic powers. The affairs of the University should, in my opinion, be carried on strictly on the principle of self-Government, and the voice of the majority of the Senate should be the voice of the University. The Government or the Chancellor should not in the least interfere with the decisions of the University as a body or exercise an absolute veto over its doings. The Hindu University has no reason to come into existence at all, if it is to be a mere replica of Government Universities, and indeed, in some respects, worse off than such Universities, as it cannot fail to be under the constitution outlined by Sir Harcourt Butler. Rather than accept the proposals of Sir Harcourt Butler, I have not the least hesitation in saying that the scheme might be altogether abandoned.

Sir Harcourt Butler says that the interests of the Government and the people are in this respect identical. Quite so.. But in that case why should the Government distrust the promoters of the University and seek to exercise absolute control over it? Are not the promoters of the Hindu University competent to know wherein lie the true interests of the students and of their countrymen in general? Can it be seriously maintained that the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces would understand the interests of the Hindu students much better than the leaders of the Hindu community itself, better than men of the calibre and character of Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, Dr. Rash Behari Ghose, Sir Narayan Chandavarkar and a host of others that could be named? There would be no objection to Sir Harcourt Butler's proposals if they were only calculated to secure efficient co-operation between the Government and the University; but their result cannot fail to be *not co-operation, but utter subordination of the University to the Government.*

It is not necessary to examine in detail the nature of the powers proposed to be reserved to the Chancellor, in order to show how vast and absolute they are. They include not only the power to interfere with the appointment of the staff, but also such powers as (1) the right of inspection for the purposes of seeing whether the standard of education is kept sufficiently high and (2) the right

to appoint Examiners for the University examinations. It is an insult to the intelligence and the honest intentions of the promoters of the University to suggest that they will not take due care to see that the standard of education to be imparted in the University is kept sufficiently high. And I think this is the first time in the whole history of University education in the whole world that the Chancellor is sought to be invested with the right of appointing University Examiners. Surely pretensions to autocracy in University matters can go no further!

On the whole, I think, that unless the proposals of the Government are considerably modified so as to ensure the independence of the University and its steady development on lines contemplated by the promoters, the scheme might well be altogether dropped, and the funds collected for the University devoted to some other useful purpose. Sir Harcourt Butler indulges a good deal in platitudes regarding "co-operation" and "identity of interests between the Government and the people," and so forth; but, however innocent may be his real motives or those of the Government, there can be no doubt that the inevitable result of the proposals he has made will be to make the University, practically, a lifeless body, utterly ill-calculated to promote the objects of the founders or to fulfil the high hopes formed about its purpose, work and influence by the general Hindu public.

Vivekananda : The Pioneer of Modern India

BY THE HON. MR. JUSTICE T. V. SESHAGIRI AIYAR.

It is said that the history of a nation is really the biography of its great men. Of no country is such a statement truer than of our country, especially in relation to the religious history. I do not like to enter into a controversy regarding the comparative value of the teachings of the various religions. This much, I shall say, that there is no truth in the assertion that in matters of religion there has been no progress in India. It requires some thinking and research to trace the gradual development of religious ideas in this country; but even the casual observer, if he is not blinded by prejudice, will

be able to see that we have been moving from stage to stage straightly, consistently and with no faltering steps and that those movements have been dictated by changes in the social and political environments of the country. Every march onwards has been led by a general who represented the spirit of the times he lived in; and I make bold to claim for the late Swami Vivekananda that he was a commander of this type.

A connected account of the work of the various religious reformers in this country, detailing the abuses remedied and the advances made should be undertaken by some one. I am not ambitious

enough to attempt it nor have I the leisure for it. But I may draw attention to a few landmarks in the work of reconstruction and enrichment, which religion has received in this country. Gautama Buddha literally threw open the gates of Heaven to the common people. His generous spirit rebelled against the theory that the road to salvation was the exclusive property of a select coterie. He protested against the belief that such a road was accessible only to those who subjected themselves to tortures and renunciations to travel it through. People believed that this great soul was undermining the fundamental conceptions of religion by these sacrilegious utterances. His propaganda spread none the less; and although it is true that the followers of Buddha had to seek refuge in other lands, it is unquestionable that his teachings and sayings permeate Hindu religion to its very core. There is more of Lord Gautama's spirit in our religious observances than in the cults which are supposed to owe their initiative directly to his teachings. The second permanent change came from that "marvellous intellect," as Swami Vivekananda described him. The great Sankaracharya's impress upon Hindu life is imperishable. His short life was a crusade against customs and habits which had made religion a byword for hypocrisy and superstition. He reformed the abuses connected with sacrifices, placed on a firm footing the various Acharams, gave his sanction to an intelligent classification of the systems of philosophy prevalent among the intellectuals and founded an order of Sanyasins who were expected to instruct the laity in the paths of virtue and toleration. His great work has been added to and, I am willing to admit, has been improved upon in particulars; but the conception and the framework were His. There might have been a touch here and a colouring there, but in all essentials the figure remains as he shaped it. His precious and all too short a life was not enough to fill in the details. I say it with great regret, but unfortunately it is true, that the order of Sanyasins which he established, has not been a success. They have misused their position. They have certainly misunderstood their vocation. There are still some good and holy men—but the class has degenerated. People have rebelled against their exactions. They are not held in much veneration and they have ceased to do the work for which their order was founded. Further they have not adapted themselves to the conditions under which they live. Fortun-

ately the Hindu Religion has wonderful recuperative powers. It was not in vain that Lord Sri Krishna said: "Whenever there is decay of righteousness, O Bharata, and there is exaltation of unrighteousness, then I myself come forth."

The new conditions under which we live, the abuses which have crept into the position of Sanyasis and the transformations which the material and moral development of the country are undergoing, demanded a new order of teachers and a new class of workers, Baghavan Ramakrishna heralded this new epoch. I cannot but regard him as John the Baptist to his more renowned pupil. Swami Vivekananda has reverentially acknowledged that all that he did and taught were inspired by his great Guru. The life of Baghavan Ramakrishna was more orthodox and more typical of Hinduism than that of his Chela. Ramakrishna was the product of the old order of things. He drew breath in it; but his life and teachings were not quite in accordance with the received notion of the duties of a Sanyasi of the old type. The force that drew him away from secular life was "love," love not of a class or of a clan; love not of a cult or sect, but love of country, love of humanity. It was this love which drew him to God and inspired all his sayings. It is this same love that led his disciples to carry India's message of goodwill to the remotest corners of the earth. Ramakrishna could barely have comprehended the significance of the fire that he was kindling. Until Vivekananda took up the torch and carried it to shores beyond the seas, the value of the pioneer work initiated by Baghavan Ramakrishna was scarcely recognised. It is by the fruits of the labour of his pupils that we are able to estimate the true meaning of the example set by the Guru. I hope I may not be understood as not appreciating properly the work of the sage of Dakshineswar. I do recognise to the full its effect upon Indian life; but I cannot help feeling that but for the personality and tireless industry of his pupil, the teachings of the Master would have borne less fruit.

I do not propose to review at any great length the career of this gifted son of India. The two volumes* devoted to the exposition of the aims of his life by his admiring pupils bear testimony to all that was great and good in him. I speak as an outsider. I knew the Swami while he was in Madras. I met him in private and listened to his

* The Life of the Swami Vivekananda, by the Eastern and Western Disciples. (The Advaita Ashrama, Himalayas).

public utterances. I want to record in these pages some of my impressions of him.

His faith in India's future was great. He was a born leader of men. Before he left for Chicago, he stayed in Madras with his friend, the late Manmanath Battacharya for some months. This place in St. Thomé was resorted to by the rising generation. Many went there to scoff at the Sanyasin and I do not know of a single man who did not remain there to worship and to pray. He exercised a magnetic influence over those who came to him. His piercing eyes seemed to search a man through and through. His massive forehead and deep clear voice arrested attention. His estimate of men was unerring. There was nothing conventional about him. At one moment, he would speak as a child and with childlike simplicity. He will soon relapse into the mood of the profound thinker. He seemed to play with and rule those who came into contact with him alternately. The severest trials never made him pessimistic. His belief in the greatness of the seers of this land and of the indebtedness of the world to their teachings was the cardinal feature of his utterances. He knew no fear nor disappointment.

It will hardly be disputed that he was more at home in Madras than in his own native place. Madras has not enriched India in the arts and sciences to the same extent as the Lower Provinces of Bengal. But Madras has given to India and to the world the greatest religious teacher, Sankara. It is here that Ramanuja and Madhava established their systems of philosophy. The great Saivite teachers all belong to Southern India. The atmosphere of religion is thick with philosophy in Madras. It is no wonder that the young monk from Calcutta found Madras so congenial. Madras can rightly claim that in the spiritual development of the Swami, it had a large share.

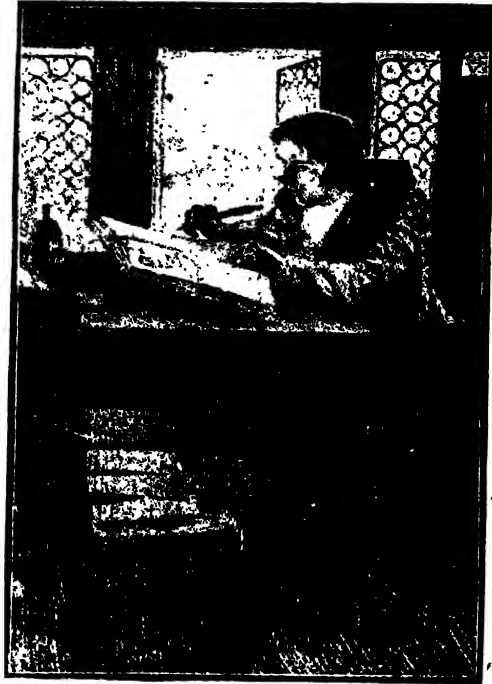
It is in this Presidency that his work and achievements have been fully appreciated. The Sanyasins of the old type who have fallen off from the ideal put before them by the king of Sanyasins, Sankara, speak of Vivekananda with respect. His sojourn in America and England has not detracted from his sanctity in the eyes of these orthodox monks. They speak of him as an exception to the rule and as one who was above conventional rules. It is no small achievement to have reconciled these men to Vivekananda's new mode of preaching.

Among all classes of people the influence of his life has been paramount. His influence in the cause of social reform has been immense. Twenty years ago, England-returned men were tabooed as social pariahs. To-day all that has changed. Provided the man does not offend against caste rules, provided he does not take to customs which are opposed to the social ideas of the community to which he belongs, the man that has spent years in Europe is not cast off from society. To Swami Vivekananda not a little of this change of attitude is due. He is responsible for a new order of Sanyasins. Selfless work for the cause of the country is all that they are intent upon. The old notion of the Sanyasi living for the betterment of his soul and serving as an example for others to follow in his wake is giving place to a new conception. Love of country is the motto of the new Sanyasi. Whether he belongs to the Ramakrishna Mutt, or to the Servants of India Society, whether he dons the Kashayam or puts on the official robes and works in the Senate and in the Legislative Council, whether he has vowed himself to a life of celibacy or is living with his wife and children, the new type of Sanyasi works for his country and for his brethren. That is the kind of renunciation which India stands in need of. The example of Vivekananda in this direction cannot be overestimated.

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Russia: Its Political and Social Development

BY PROFESSOR S. J. CRAWFORD.

(MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.)

It is one of the ironies of history that Russia and Servia should find themselves in the year of grace 1915 leagued with France, Belgium and England against the hereditary enemies of the Slav—the German and the Nomad. The Austrian Empire includes a large number of Slavs, who are forced against their will to fight against their kinsmen, but the real enemies of the great Slav Power are the Germans, the Hungarians and the Turks, the first representing the descendants of the northern tribes who whether as Vikings or in the more specious but scarcely less barbarous guise of military orders warred century after century against the progress of the Slav, while the Hungarians and the Turks are the last relics in Europe of the Nomads, who were for ages the bane of Western civilization.

Some races like some individuals seem to have been born for martyrdom. Endowed with great and noble qualities which excite feelings of admiration and hope for the future, it has been their lot to suffer and to die, while other peoples less gifted have taken the position these might have been expected to fill. Such has been the lot of the Slavs. Until comparatively recent times they have been the sport of a cruel destiny. A well-known historian has laid down the dictum that "a people is and remains what its land of origin has made it."* Of no people is this truer than of the Slavs. Just as the mounted Nomad is the son and product of the arid salt-deserts, the Slav is the product of the marsh. The original home of the Slav was Polesie—a district about half as large as England triangular in shape with the towns of Brest-Litovsk, Mohiles and Kiev forming the apices. The whole district was once a lake and even now consists mainly of marshland formed by the river Pripet. This vast extent of marshland had a desolating effect on its inhabitants. Intercourse was difficult, well-nigh impossible, except when winter gave stability to the treacherous quagmires. It was easier for the Vikings to traverse

the network of waters which extend from the Baltic to the Caspian than for the Slavs on one side of the marsh to visit their neighbours on the other. The ancient Slavs therefore lived in isolated communities lacking both political and social unity. "Mauricius"† testifies that they were "kingless and hostile to one another and never cared to form bands." The historian Procopius tells us "that they were not ruled by one man but lived from the earliest times in 'democracy' and so they deliberated in common on all their affairs—good and bad." Not only did their marshy home militate against political and social cohesion but it also sapped their vitality, and stunted the growth of men, cattle and vegetation, depriving its inhabitants of physical force and reducing them to the humblest kind of subsistence. The reeds and rushes of the marsh were unsuitable food for cattle; the all-pervading marsh rendered agriculture on a large scale impossible, so that the inhabitants were reduced to living mainly by hunting, fishing, pig-rearing and the cultivation of manna-grass,—the only kind of grain which flourished in that unhealthy region.

Many of the characteristics of the primitive Slav survive to this day in the inhabitant of White Russia. "The White Russian is above all a fisherman and a husbandman. Void of all enterprise he leaves others to trade with the fruits of his labour and they drain him to the last farthing. Drunkenness is his only hateful quality; otherwise he has attractive traits. He is thrifty almost to avarice in the management of his affairs, and shows an endurance that harmonises little with his slender physique. He is in no way aggressive, but rather dreamy, confiding, not at all malicious, good-tempered, not without dignity, very hospitable, and a lover of amusement. The dance, the song and music are his natural elements. On summer evenings the village youths assemble in the streets and afterwards promenade the whole night-long singing in chorus

* Peisker—*Cambridge Medieval History* II, page 426.

† Quoted by Peisker, l. c. page 420.

their melancholy lyric songs."* In Procopius we read that the ancient Slavs were not malignant nor villainous, but harmless and naive; while the German chronicler, Adam of Bremen, (†1075) tells us that there was no more hospitable and kindly people than the Slavs of Pomerania.

Such was the people which found itself between an upper and nether millstone, and whose early history is one long tale of martyrdom. On the east and south they were exposed to the mounted Nomads of the steppes, and on the west and north they had to face the full impact of the Germanic on-rush. "The Slav and the mounted Nomad," says Peisker, "are diametrical extremes, and the murderous irony of fate made them neighbours. The one was a soft anvil, the other a hammer hard as steel. A second not less weighty hammer, the Germans, came into play, and the anvil was beaten flat."

The greatest possible contrast exists between the expansion of the Slav and the Germanic *Völkervandern* (Wandering of the Nations); the Germanic expansion burst like a storm on the peoples of the south; the expansion of the Slavs may be compared rather to the on-coming of the tide, silent, almost unnoticeable, but irresistible and mighty in its results. The two chief enemies of the Slav were the Nomads and the Germans. It has been the task of the Slavs to act as a buffer state, and to save Europe from the barbarians of the Eastern Steppes at the price of its own development. Had it not been for the Nomads, Russia might to-day have stood in the van of European progress. "Her network of rivers, as if created for primitive commerce, is the most magnificent on the face of the earth, and in spite of its inhospitable climate it would certainly have nurtured the highest civilization had not its southern entrances been situated in the grass steppe by the Black and Caspian Seas, the domain of the mounted Nomads, the arch-enemies and stiflers of civilisation." Storm after storm of these Nomads swept over the nascent civilisation of early Slavonia leaving death and desolation in its train. The Greek colonies planted among the Scythians of the coasts of the Black Sea and Sea of Azov perished in the wild raids of the second century B.C., and with them the seeds of civilization. The Goths established in the third and fourth centuries A.D., a domination which lasted two hundred years; but in 375 the Goths fell before the Huns, and the Slavs were left to

face for fourteen centuries the bands of Nomads emanating from that *officina gentium*, Central Asia. Huns, Bulgars, Avars, Chazars, Magyars, Patzinaks, Cumans and Mongols appeared in succession, one horde overthrowing another, but all combining to oppress the wretched Slav and to make the name of Slav (properly Slovene, a name which probably meant "an inhabitant of Slovy") synonymous among the peoples of Europe and Western Asia, with the word 'slave.'

Nor were the Nomads alone in making 'slaves' of the Slavs; the Vikings of the Northlands made war on them with ships. The Viking was not only a pirate and a warrior but was also a trader. Trading settlements of the Vikings abounded in Northern Russia. Among the chief articles of their trade were slaves. The Vikings fell upon the inhabitants and carried them off to the distant Volga and the Nearer East for sale. These Vikings were called the *Ros*—a name which meant the 'seafarers.' This word of Scandinavian origin became the name of the greatest of the Slav kingdoms—Russia.

Though the Vikings or Varangians, as they were also called, enslaved the Slavs, they were not cruel masters. So we find that in the ninth century the Slavs actually put themselves under the protection of these northern pirates. The Pseudo-Nestor Chronicle relates under the date 859 A.D. "The Slavs drove the Varangians over sea, and began to govern themselves, and there was no justice among them, and clan rose against clan" "and they said to each other: Let us seek for a prince who can reign over us and judge what is right. And they went over the sea to the Varangians, to Russ, for so were these Varangians called They said to Russ: 'Our land is large and rich, but there is no order in it; come ye and reign over us.' And three brothers were these with their whole clan, and they took with them all the Russ (i.e., the Scandinavian Russ not the later Slavonic Russians, who got their name from the Russ.), and they came at first to the Slovians and built the town of Ladoga, and the eldest Rurik settled in Ladoga and the Russian land got its name from these Varangians."* Thus the Norman kingdom of Russia was founded just about two hundred years before the Norman conquest of England.

By the strong bulwark thus erected by the Normans at the expense of the Slavs, the attacks

* Peisker: *The Expansion of the Slavs*, l. c. page 424.

* Quoted by Peisker l. c. page 434.

of the Tatars and other Nomads were checked, and the Germans and other Western nations were enabled to develop their culture unchecked by the devastating inroads of these marauders.

Rurik concentrated his strength by building fortresses. His successor Oleg extended his power at the expense of the souther Tatars and by establishing his capital at Kiev, commanded the Dnieper and the road to the Black Sea. Under Vlademir (980-1015), the Rus became Christian and were received into the Greek Orthodox Church, an event fraught with great consequences, since it bound Russia closely to the Eastern Empire, and placed a barrier between the Russians and Poles, who were reconverted by the Roman Church under Boleslaus (992-1025) 'in order that they might obtain the protection of the Holy See against the Germans, who were pressing eastwards'. Her Orthodoxy accentuated the isolation of Russia, which owing to its position was already out of the ordinary path of European development.

The history of medieval Russia is one long story of constant struggle against the Nomad hordes, which threatened its very existence from the east and south, the powerful kingdom of Poland ever jealous of any increase in power on the part of its Muscovite neighbours on the east, and the tendencies towards decentralisation and faction within.

Another stage in Russian history began with the accession of Ivan the Terrible (1534-84). Ivan was the first Russian sovereign to invent and consistently act up to a regular theory of autocracy, focussed in the person of the Tsar. He was the regenerator of old Muscovy. Surrounding himself with the most capable men he could find, he set himself to break the power of the Tatars, and to extend his empire to the Volga. The Crimea was invaded and partially subjugated, and the power of the Russian nobles broken. He was determined that there should be no power in Russia except the Tsar. Yet in spite of his genius and his foresight, his reign left Russia worse off than he found it. His cruelty outraged the rights of humanity and stimulated the worst elements in the people. Politically he showed wonderful foresight and anticipated some of the ideals of Peter the Great. He was very popular with the lower and middle classes, and was the first Tsar to summon and take the advice of a popular assembly. Yet his reign was followed by a period of terrible confusion, during which the Russian State almost disappeared.

A better order of things dawned for Russia with the accession of the Romanovs in the person of Michael Romanov, 1613. "It is not too much to say that the Renaissance of Russia dates from the quinquennium (1613-1618) during which the great men of the realm devoted themselves to the patriotic duty of guiding the footsteps of their young Tsar, and rallying the recuperative elements of the nation round the newly established throne. A new spirit of patriotism pervaded the people. Local and personal aims were abandoned, and the people united in placing themselves under an autocracy which seemed to promise the best government for their Fatherland." Russia was in a desperate condition. The Swedes were in possession of her Baltic Provinces as well as the great emporium of Nijni-Novgorod; the Poles held Smolensk and the West; the Cossacks were trying to establish a kingdom for themselves on the Volga; and 'hordes of savage Tatars swarmed burning, outraging and pillaging in every direction. Thanks to the genius and energies of the young king, these dangers were all surmounted and the power of Russia consolidated at the expense of her foes. Poland her greatest rival sank gradually during the 17th century, while Russia slowly but surely grew in strength and prosperity.

Owing to their past, the Russians were far behind the rest of Europe in civilisation. "An iron-bound conservatism, the consequence of a gross ignorance due again to centuries of isolation from the civilised West, fettered every movement, every thought of the national life. Perpetual tutelage and an absolute want of culture were almost invincible obstacles to anything like the development of a free and healthy social life in Muscovy, while the continual increase of public burdens, and the repression of all popular amusements by the Greek Church, drove the people to seek relief from the grinding monotony of life in habitual drunkenness and the grossest sensuality."* This was the result of centuries of oppression on a people possessing many noble qualities which, if developed, would have placed them among the foremost of the nations of Europe in the 17th century. It was from a people in this condition that Peter the Great set himself to build that new Russia, which has become the Russia of to-day.

Peter the Great ascended the throne in 1689 and died in 1725. On his accession he found the Empire suffering from evils of every kind—"dis-

* Bain: *Slavonic Europe*, page 287-89, l. c. page 326.

sipation of energy, dislike of co-operation, repudiation of responsibility, lack of initiative, the tyranny of the family, the insignificance of the individual." To remove these was a Herculean task, but the Emperor did not shrink from it. He found his country a semi-Oriental power, he made her a Western nation; he found her isolated from the West, shut in on from the sea on the north-west by Sweden, cut off from Europe on the west by Poland, and barred from the Black Sea by Turkey. With indomitable perseverance he set himself to reform the internal institutions and raise them from a barbaric level to that of the Western states. He saw with a statesman's foresight that if his country was to occupy its rightful place among the nations of the West that her way must be cleared towards the sea. With this end in view he made war on the Swedes and established his new capital, St. Petersburg, on the shores of the gulf of Finland. The weakness of Turkey paved the way for Russian domination in the Black Sea. Poland was already weak. The policy thus initiated by Peter the Great was carried on by his successors, and in spite of relapses progress was maintained. Catherine II. extended the boundaries of the Empire westwards by sharing in the partitions of Poland. In her reign the Crimea was finally conquered and Russia became the most powerful nation on the Black Sea. Constant progress was also made in extending the Empire in the East.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia had an area of about 2,000,000 square miles and a population estimated at about 50,000,000. In spite of her great extent, she was with the exception of Poland, a united empire. The central provinces were of Slav blood, not without some Tatar admixture, which increases in the east and south-east. The Baltic Provinces were inhabited by Letts, Lithuanians and Finns; of these the Letts and Lithuanians had been for centuries under German influence. Her population at this period was mainly rural, only some five per cent. of the whole living in towns, the largest of which were St. Petersburg with 300,000 inhabitants and Moscow with about 230,000. The population was composed of two classes, nobles and serfs. Peter the Great had striven to build up a middle class of traders and craftsmen, but without much success. Foreign trade was mainly in the hands of aliens or Jews. Education, in spite of Peter's efforts, had made but little progress. The learned professions had no corporate existence, and the possession of capital was almost restricted to the nobility.

The Army, Navy, Church, and Civil Service were the only professions which brought distinction but eminence in these was the lot of a favoured few. Corruption and incompetence were rife in all. The vast mass of the people were serfs, chained to the soil and without political or social rights, entirely in the power of the landowners. No ray of hope lighted up the future for the wretched serf. "Education was prohibited to him; his agricultural implements were of a very rudimentary kind; his cattle were few and stunted."* In matters ecclesiastical the Orthodox Church was all-powerful and was regarded with affection by the people.

On the murder of Paul I, in 1801, Alexander I. became Tsar. His accession was hailed with delight by the nation, and his subjects looked forward with hope to the reign of one who was known to possess enlightened view. From his tutor Laharpe, he had imbibed the liberal views of Rousseau and Voltaire. Their hopes were not disappointed. During the first ten years numerous domestic reforms were carried out. The administration was remodelled; the nobility were granted their ancient rights; merchants and peasants were allowed to hold land; the fetters placed on trade were struck off; the censorship of the press was relaxed; education was extended, and many legal reforms were carried out.

In foreign affairs a change of policy was inaugurated. Owing to Paul's infatuation for Napoleon, Russia had become involved in war with Britain. The young Tsar formed a coalition against Napoleon. Prussia alone remained doubtful, and it was only the urgent appeals of Alexander I. backed by the entreaties of Stein that roused Frederick William and his Prussians from their lethargy. Austerlitz and Jena saw the armies of the Alliance routed and the disappointment of Alexander's hopes. Napoleon invaded Russia, and Alexander was compelled to make peace with Napoleon at Tilsit, 1807. This peace committed Russia to Napoleon's economic designs, and led to the Russian conquest of Finland from Sweden (1809), and incidentally to the Finnish Question.

In 1809, Napoleon offended Russia by the creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, which robbed Russia of most of Poland, and raised up a powerful enemy on her western frontier. The result was that Russia threw in her lot with the Allies, Russia was invaded, and Moscow burnt. Alexander was the soul of the Coalition which overthrew Napoleon at Leipzig (1813), the Battle of the Nations, and entered Paris on

* Skrine: *Expansion of Russia*, page 12.

March 31st, 1814. In this connection it is interesting to note that to the Emperor Alexander "are largely due the more civilised conceptions of warfare which Europe (*exceptis excipiendis*) now observes."* In spite of the memory of Moscow, the Russian hosts refrained from pillage. Alexander showed himself the true friend of France, and it was largely owing to his efforts that Louis XVIII was forced to sign the Charter of Liberties. After Waterloo Blücher announced that he intended to levy a war-contribution of £40,000,000 on Paris, destroy the Place de Vendôme and blow up the bridge of Jena. (Prussian methods have not changed much in the last hundred years). It was only by the Tsar posting a regiment of his "barbarians" on the doomed bridge that the Prussians were prevented from carrying out their threat. While the Austrians and Prussians pillaged France, the British and Russian armies alone refrained from plunder. In this connection, it may be well to point out that in the War of Liberation against Napoleon the Prussians had no objection to serve with the "Muscovite barbarians" as they now politely term the Russians. Throughout the war it was the Germans and Austrians who showed the spirit of barbarism rather than their Russian allies.

It is interesting in the light of present events to note the part taken by the Tsar in the struggle against Napoleon. "His share was out of all proportion to the ill-developed resources of Russia. Alone he could never have crushed the Man of Destiny; but without him the continent would not have risen against its oppressor. His tenacity, when the Allies despaired of victory led them to Paris and enabled them to dictate peace there. When Napoleon's escape from Elba called for fresh efforts, the Tsar was again the main-spring of the common cause. The victory won by his vigour and persistence was crowned by a magnanimity worthy of the heroic age. For a brief period he was the arbiter of Europe; and the eyes of all turned to him for protection. Intrepid in danger, he held war in horror, and, conscious of the evils which afflicted the nation, he resolved to devote the remainder of his life to alleviating them."†

*Unfortunately for Russia the times were not ripe either in Russia or in Europe for the realisation of Alexander's noble ideals. The "Holy Alliance," thanks to the malign influence of Metternich, instead of facilitating the coming of

the Kingdom of God became an engine of despotism which was ruthlessly used to stamp out liberal ideas. Returning home to find his country exhausted and a great deal of discontent among his subjects, Alexander carried out reforms in the finances and the army, but the great dream of his life, the Liberation of the Serfs, was left to one of his successors. During the long war public morality had declined and a thorough reform of the legal administration was found necessary. The speculation and corruption among the Government servants were repressed with a strong hand. Further encouragement was given to commerce and trade throughout the Empire, manufactures of all kinds being sedulously encouraged and aided by the imposition of tariffs.

But though he encouraged reforms at home, the Tsar fell more and more under the influence of Metternich and politically he set himself to repress anything savouring of Jacobinism. In pursuance of her claim to be the guardian of Christian subjects in the Turkish Empire, Russia aided the Greeks in their struggle for independence—much against the will of the Tsar, whose hand was forced 1822-5. The last years of his reign are marked by the reactionary policy, known as the Arakchievchina, named after Arakchiv, the Chancellor. During these years all liberal ideas were suppressed, education of the common people was forbidden, religious liberty withdrawn and the old abuses flourished. The natural result was that hundreds of secret societies sprang into existence, and the whole country was soon seething with discontent.

The reaction begun in the last years of Alexander continued under his successor Nicholas I, 1825-55. The chief events of his reign apart from the Crimean War were the Revolution in Poland, which ended in the final loss of Polish liberty and unmitigated despotism, and the war with Persia. Great advances were made in Central Asia and the Caucasus. In 1849, Muraviev built the great fortress of Petropavolsk in Kamskatchka.

With the accession of Alexander II, an era of reform set in once more. The new reign saw the Emancipation of the Serfs (1861), a reform which surpasses in the magnitude of the numbers affected any similar reform in history. These serfs now became free and self-respecting citizens. Attempts had been made by previous Tsars to reform the administration of law and order, but under Nicholas I. the whole judicial administration was reorganised, the condition of prisons was improved, and legal procedure facilitated. Local self-government was also introduced, and

* Skrine: *Expansion of Russia*, page 320.

† Skrine, l. c. page 45.

land-proprietors met to discuss the affairs of the parish on an equal footing with emancipated serfs. Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace describes the effect produced on his mind by the debates at these assemblies. "Unlike," he says, "the English, who crawl cautiously forward along the rugged path of progress, looking attentively to right and left and seeking to avoid obstacles and circumvent opposition by conciliation and compromise, the Russian dashes boldly into the unknown, keeping his eye fixed on the distant goal and striving to follow a bee-line, regardless of pitfalls and consequences."* This reminds us of Talleyrand's saying that 'the cardinal difference between Russia and the rest of Europe was that she worked for the future; and her neighbours only for the present.' But the result of working for the future, and neglecting the 'present, is seen in those men reactions which have been so common in Russian history.

The enthusiasm of Alexander II. for reform was unhappily checked by a widespread revolutionary movement, chiefly among the student classes, who imagined that the most advanced socialist ideals of the West could be realised immediately, if only autocrats were got rid of. The movement spread to all classes, and in 1881, Alexander II. was assassinated "on the eve of issuing a decree for the Convocation of a National Assembly."

Alexander III., like his predecessors in the XIXth century, began his reign in a time of crisis. During the last three years of his father's reign, outrage and sedition pervaded the Empire. The natural result of this period of terror was that reform ceased for a time, but during the next twenty-five years, those already initiated were consolidated and Russia made considerable progress economically. Nihilism gradually declined, but an anti-Semite crusade began under Ignatiev in 1882. By a series of edicts almost every political right was wrested from the Jews, who were obnoxious to the Greek Church, who had in Pobiedonostev (Procurator of the Holy Synod) and Ignatiev willing instruments, whose influence was all-powerful with the pious Tsar. On the other hand the new Tsar was most solicitous for the welfare of the peasantry. In 1884 the last relic of serfdom, the poll-tax, was abolished; a scheme of land-purchase was initiated; and the peasantry were empowered to purchase or rent land by the institution of Peasants Banks. The Tsar also tried to discourage drunkenness by reducing the number of public-houses—a reform

which was carried to its conclusion by the abolition of the State-sale of liquor in Russia in 1914.

Special attention was also paid to the magnificent forests of Russia, of which she possesses 498,000,000 acres. Measures were passed for regulating wood-cutting and special Forest-Boards established. The great mineral wealth of Russia, under the fostering care of M. Witte, protection was extended to young industries, and an era of industrial progress set in. The result may be seen in the development of a city like Łódź, which had a population of only 50,000 in 1872, and of 400,000 in 1910. Towards the end of the reign of Alexander III., Russia made rapid progress in railway development. In 1891, the Trans-Siberian railway, which linked up Western Europe with the Pacific Ocean, was begun, and railways are rapidly being constructed in every part of the Empire.

Politically Alexander's reign was reactionary. His favourite maxim was—"One Russia, one Creed, one Tsar." We have already seen how his zeal for 'one Creed' led to the terrible persecutions of the Jews; Protestant dissenters were also subjected to vigorous restrictions. In his zeal for centralisation he stamped out the last relics of Polish freedom, and began the curtailment of the liberties of the Grand Duchy of Finland. A system of Russification was adopted, which was specially aimed at the destruction of Swedish influence in that Province. This policy is still dominant in the councils of the Tsar.

The earlier portion of the reign of Alexander III was guided in foreign policy by a treaty with Germany, engineered by Bismarck in 1884. But Germany's alliance with Austria and the consequent danger to Russian interests in the Balkans, led to a gradual estrangement, which threw Russia into the arms of France, (1891) now isolated by the Triple Alliance and the antagonism of England, with whose interests the Russian advance towards India seemed likely to clash.

While Alexander III was an autocrat of the autocrats, and showed it in his repression of liberal instincts in his subjects, his devotion to the church, his zeal for the greatness of his country and the well-being of the peasantry won him the love and affection of the vast bulk of his subjects, so that his death in 1894 was bewailed by every class of the community.

Nicholas II., the present Tsar, affirmed on his accession his intention to "promote the progress and peaceful glory of our beloved Russia, and the happiness of all our faithful subjects," a promise which he has faithfully kept, in spite of the crises which his country has passed through during his

* *Our Russian Ally.*

reign. The war with Japan which seemed fraught with the disaster to Russia has really been a blessing in disguise. Russia's defeat forced her sovereign and his ministers to throw themselves in earnest into the task of trying to satisfy the political aspirations of the country. The result of this was the promulgation of a decree constituting a Chamber of Deputies or Duma, freely elected by the people, and an Upper House, or Imperial Council, whose members are selected partly by election and partly by nomination. Here are collected a most heterogeneous assembly of nationalities—Great Russians, Little Russians, Finns, Tatars, Poles, Russo-Germans, Circassians, etc. The number of parties is almost as large as the number of nationalities. The cabinet unlike ours is nominated by the Tsar, though his choice is limited by the fact that he must choose ministers who will receive the support of the Duma. Dead-locks have occurred several times and are likely to occur again in future, but slowly and surely the Russian people are working out their political salvation as they have worked out their economic and social salvation.

It is true that much remains to be done even in these two last spheres. Education is still backward, "but three great educational factors are at work; the first is the Government educational system which is doing its utmost to extend lower secondary and higher education throughout the Empire; the second is the army in which every unlettered recruit is taught to read and write; and the third is to be found in the practical education given in the village assemblies which are spread like a network over the Empire, and where all communal affairs are discussed and settled." A new spirit has begun to pervade the people. In agricultural affairs the peasantry are relinquishing their conservative methods and manifesting a progressive spirit. Industrially the country is passing through a revolution, which may not

inaptly be compared with the English Industrial Revolution of the eighteenth century. A new mercantile and middle class has arisen, full of sympathy with culture and progress. The standard of comfort has everywhere risen. The sons of the new middle class are being well-educated in schools, technical colleges and universities. The clergy, on the whole, are the most backward class, but under the new regime their attitude is neutral towards science and culture rather than obstructive. The church must not be entirely blamed for the persecution of the Jews. It is true that they are not guiltless, but much of the hatred of the Jew has been due to economic rather than religious causes. The Jewish money-lender in the past made himself both indispensable to and hated by the Russian peasant.

The nobles have also shared in the general progress. They have been described by a competent judge as "well-educated, highly cultured, remarkably open-minded, most anxious to acquaint themselves with the latest ideas in science, literature and art, and very fond of studying the most advanced foreign theories of social and political development, with a view to applying them to their own country*."

We will conclude this sketch of the political and social development of Russia by quoting Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace's summing up of Russia's relation to England—"The conflicting interests of the two great powers are not so irreconcilable as they are so often represented, and the chances of solving the difficult problem by mutually satisfactory compromises may be greatly increased by cultivating friendly relations with the Power which was formerly our rival and now our ally." All that has occurred since the War began tends to justify this optimistic view of the future relations between the Russian and British Empires.

* Mackenzie Wallace, l. c. 2, *ibid* page 23.

THE IDEAS OF BERNHARDI.

BY MR. T. E. WELBY.

It was long ago pointed out by Madame De Staël that "thought, which calms other people, excites the Germans." If that was true of the Germany of her day, it is truer of modern Germany, and in our time the thought of Germany has been singularly feverish, full of doctrine and megalomania. The hasty

people who expound the causes of the war in the half-penny papers have seized on the name of Nietzsche and dragged it into every discussion with the assurance which only complete ignorance of his work can give. The truth is that only to a very limited extent, and then mostly indirectly, can Nietzsche be regarded as the author of

the movement which culminated in German aggression and the war. His great and disordered mind was that of a poet rather than that of a philosopher—many of his ideas can be paralleled out of William Blake—and he cannot possibly be regarded as “a safe guide.” There is much extravagance, much morbidity, much ferocious egotism in Nietzsche, but there are indisputable flashes of wisdom, elements of real grandeur, and for the discriminating reader a tonic against sentimentalism that is dangerous only if swallowed in large doses. It is to lesser men, to the notoriously fanatical historian Trietschke and to the egregious Bernhardi, that we must look for the clearer and coarser doctrines which have helped to intensify the madness of modern Germany.

Of Bernhardi the man, there is little to say. He is over sixty years of age, a retired General living on his estate in Silesia, and writing there books which have no great intrinsic value but which has greatly stimulated the German militarists and therefore claim attention.

Bernhardi's writings on the methods by which war should be waged do not here concern us. We have to deal with (i) his belief that war is in itself “an instrument of culture,” and (ii) his conviction that war is a necessity for Germany, unless she is to lose her position. As regards the first part of the enquiry, it may shortly be said that there is a considerable amount of half-truth in Bernhardi's contentions. War does undoubtedly bring out some valuable qualities in civilised mankind, which in peace are liable to decay or at least to lie dormant. The thing is a platitude, and here it may be said that Bernhardi is an inveterate platitude-monger, with no really fine quality of mind, though with a kind of crude power of pressing assertions home. The proper answer to the first part of Bernhardi's case is not denial of the truths he exaggerates but the retort that his contention is merely a criticism of our failure to make peace a finer thing. The inference which wisdom would draw from his premiss is not:—“Then let us rush into war,” but, “let us make peace something more heroic than the mere negotiation of war.” As for the second part of his case, it needs more detailed statement.

Being a German, with the humourless megalomania of modern or Prussianised Germany in his very marrow, he calmly assumes as a sort of law that Germany must be morally (“morally” is good) entitled to acquire such territories as other Powers now hold, for by their possession she

would be enabled to “find herself,” to realise her national aspirations. That this is not a burlesque of his view may be easily shown. He writes in the work translated as “Britain Germany's Vassal” to this effect:—The Germans are the most cultured race on the earth; they started late in the race for colonies; they believe they could make better use of colonies than Great Britain and France have done; therefore they have a *moral* right to acquire British and French colonies! The moral question being thus simply settled, Bernhardi turns to the problems of practical politics. According to him, the Triple *Entente* is directed against Germany, whereas of course it was entirely defensive and so vague that Great Britain's intervention in this war would have been uncertain if Belgian neutrality had not been violated. And why is Great Britain so determined to destroy Germany's navy? Bernhardi is ready with the most fantastic explanation ever given by a professed authority on international affairs. Great Britain, he declares, expects eventually to have to fight the United States! She dared not risk that with so powerful a fleet as the German in European waters. Consequently, according to Bernhardi, she has for years been anxious to bring about war and smash the German fleet while as yet the Anglo-American war was a long way off! Of course, the explanation of this clumsy and far-fetched fiction is that Bernhardi dare not avow that Germany has for years persistently challenged British naval supremacy, while on land she was making herself on the whole the first military Power in the world.

“Hemmed in” by Great Britain, France and Russia, denied all opportunity of asserting her precious moral right to other nations' colonies, and bursting with the parvenu pride of a new Empire, for which Bernhardi finds a prettier name, Germany finds war “a moral and biological necessity.” Two years ago he wrote:—“A policy which is ready to act is demanded in the interest of self-preservation out of political wisdom. It would be very dangerous to follow a waiting policy.” And again:—“If we maintain an attitude of inactivity and drift, Germany's position will become more and more unfavourable.” He has not had long to wait for that war which was to be “an instrument of culture” (applied to the historic art-treasures of Belgium) and to prove the force of his claim that the Germans are the most idealistic and enlightened of peoples.



VON. BERNHARDI,

THE DREADFUL STORY OF WILLIAM AND THE MATCHES.



It almost makes me cry to tell
What foolish William once befell.
He'd grown more headstrong every day
And now was left alone at play.
Upon the table close at hand
A box of matches chanced to stand.
Now Dame Europa oft had told him
That if he touched them she would scold
him.
But William said, "Oh, what a pity,
For when they burn it is so pretty!
So long I've waited for this game!
They crackle and they spurt and flame!"

The pussy-cats heard this,
And they began to hiss,
And stretch their claws,
And raise their paws:
"Me-ow," they said, "me ow, me-o:
You'll burn to death if you do so!"



But William would not take advice
He lit a match—it was so nice!
It crackled so, it burnt so clear
(Exactly like the picture here),
He jumped for joy and ran about,
And was too pleased to put it out.

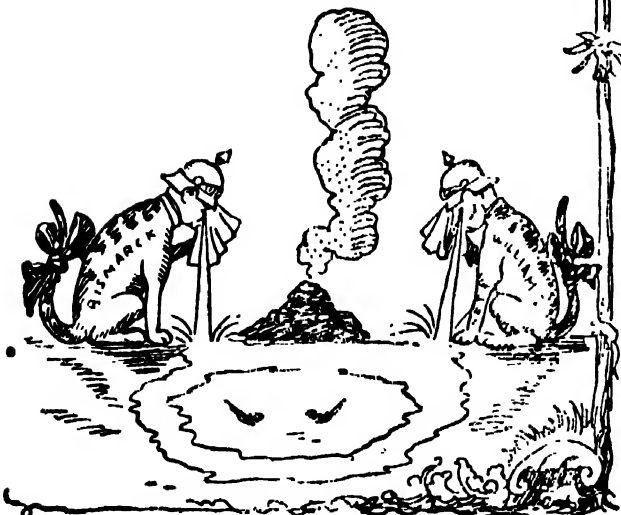
The pussy-cats were still
Alarmed at naughty Will.
They stretched their claws,
And raised their paws:
" 'Tis very, very wrong, you know;
Me-ow, me-o! Me-ow, me-o!
You will be burnt if you do so!



But see, O what a flaming storm !
The fire has caught his uniform ;
His tunic burns, his arms, his hair,
He burns all over, everywhere.

Then how the pussy-cats did mew.
What else, poor pussies, could they do ?
They screamed at him, 'twas all in vain,
And 'then' they screamed and screamed
again
" Make haste ! make haste ! me-ow, me-o !
He'll burn to death, we told him so !"

So Will was burnt, with all his clothes,
His arms and hands and eyes and nose :
All perished in a flaming crash — .
Except the points of his moustache !
And nothing else but these was found
Among his ashes on the ground.



And when the good cats sat beside
The smoking ruins, how they cried !
" Me-ow me-oo, me-ow me-oo,
What will our German Empire do ?"
The tears ran down their cheeks so fast
They made a little pond at last.

* From Messrs Methuen & Co's., publication.
" Swollen headed William."




GENERAL VON MOLTKE.

The German Generalissimo in the War of 1870 and the Victor of Sedan, Von Moltke's name is still an inspiration to the Germans. From all accounts the German Staff is following closely the principles and methods laid down by this great strategist.

THE ORIGIN OF THE MADRAS SEPOY

BY MR. HENRY DODWELL, M.A.

 THE recent despatch of the Madras Sappers on active service naturally suggests to the mind the long history of the Sepoy Forces in the Madras Army. Although half-military peons had long been maintained, as well by the President and Council of Fort St. George as by the French at Pondichery and the Dutch at Negapatam, and although these had on occasions served against the predatory attacks of local Nawabs, they were too irregular, undisciplined and ill-armed a body to be of effective value. Those armed with guns of any sort possessed matchlocks, not flint-locks; many were armed with bamboo lances; others with sword and target. Little if any training was attempted; and the men came and went, were entertained and reduced, with the greatest frequency.

Sepoy troops seem first to have been effectively employed, not on the Coromandel, but on the Malabar Coast. There, as here, English and French were established close to each other; and their relations were embittered by commercial rivalry many years before the great struggle between the two nations began in the Carnatic. The principal article of trade was pepper, which was exported to Europe, to Persia and to China. In those days the coast was occupied by numerous small princes, most of whom had made treaties with one or other of the European companies granting the exclusive privilege of buying pepper within their narrow dominions. This led to interminable intrigues. Both French and English factories busily endeavoured to extend their own and curtail their rivals' opportunities of purchase. On more than one occasion this resulted in French and English nearly coming to blows; and very often the little fortresses of Tellicherry and Mahé were threatened by a league of Malabar princelings. At neither did trade warrant a considerable European garrison; and so began the custom of taking into service bodies of soldiers recruited on that coast.

A word or two must be said about these troops and their organisation. They were most effectively recruited by some well-known partisan leaders, such as Abdul Rahman whom Ranga Pillai mentions so often, or Ishmael Khan whom the

English at Tellicherry tried to secure as the commandant of their sepoys, who was reported to be 'famous throughout Asia,' but who preferred taking service under the Viceroy of Goa to enlisting under British colours. These sepoys (they were specifically so called in contradistinction to 'Caliquiloners,' 'Cotiotomen' or 'Tellicherry Moors') were mainly recruited on the northern part of the coast, in what now forms the Canara districts of Madras and Bombay. The great difficulty always was to get recruits who possessed weapons. In the instructions to an agent sent to raise men, we read that recruits without guns, or at least without swords and targets, are useless.

The earliest reference to these people appears to be in the Pondichery Records. It is stated that when La Bourdounais in 1741 went to Mahé to rescue it from the attacks of the Nairs, he found sepoys in the French service. In the next year three companies were transferred to the Coromandel Coast. These seem to have been commanded by Abdul Rahman, Hassan Sahib, and Bikkam Khan. Abdul Rahman was believed to be the man who killed Anwar-ud-din Khan at Ambur, and Bikkam Khan figures unfortunately in the pages of Orme. Such was the origin of the sepoy on the Coromandel Coast.

The organisation and discipline which they received at the hands of the French, is an obscure and uncertain matter. Various writers have alleged that Dupleix drilled them after the European manner; but there is so much demonstrable falsity mixed up with the traditional account of Dupleix' sepoys that it is well to be cautious. Dupleix himself, writing on the subject after his return to Europe, says that none were known on the coast till 1746, although they were certainly present four years earlier. Weber talks of 1,500 being in Pondicherry in 1740 though only 300 were obtained and that two years later. Malleson with his usual impetuous indiscrimination takes the largest figure which he can find in gossiping memoirs, and states them at 5,000! Further, regarding the claim of drilling these sepoys European-wise, it was put forward on behalf of Francois Martin, who ruled Pondicherry forty odd years before the time of Dupleix; and

allusions, which seem to point to something similar, are to be found at Madras in the last decade of the 17th and in Bengal in the first decade of the 18th century.

It appears possible that sporadic and transient efforts were made to drill the peons of an earlier day; but no trace of any tradition survives to show that such a practice continued to exist for any length of time; and the probabilities are, on the whole, against its existence at any of these earlier times. So far as Dupleix's administration is concerned, there seems to be no evidence to suggest that the French sepoy companies were at any time officered by Europeans; and if this negative evidence be accepted, it seems unlikely that the French sepoys were ever drilled according to the European method. It may, however, be conjectured that they were armed with flint-lock muskets, and that they followed the European musketry exercise in order to facilitate that rapidity of fire which then, as now, was an essential factor of success on the battlefield.

For several years the English at Fort St. David only followed the lead already given by the French. They too procured sepoys from their settlements on the Malabar Coast; they too left them to be officered by the men who had raised them; and it may be added, their experience was somewhat unfortunate. It has already been stated that Bikkan Khan commanded one of the French companies that were brought round in 1742. Next year he and his company were sent back again, and the company was broke. Presumably he was, therefore, the least efficient of the three French commandants. Shortly after, he was taken into the English service, and it was he who commanded the company of sepoys which reached Fort St. David in 1747. It was very natural for him to enter into correspondence with his former companions-in-arms; naturally too it led to proposals for him to change the English service for the French; and these proposals seem to have been accepted by him and a certain number of his command. He was seized, imprisoned, court-martialled, and with some of his companions banished to St. Helena for life. Orme's account, to a

careless reader would seem to imply that he hanged himself there; but that was not so. Bikkan Khan turned up again in the Malabar Coast about 1756, became the 'head sepoy' at Mahé, and was seized incautiously passing through English territory with a hundred men whom he had enlisted for the French at Mangalore. He was soon, however, released on a reference to the Madras Council.

Such incidents as Bikkan Khan's contemplated desertion at Fort St. David were to be expected with men whose military system more resembled that of Italian condottieri than anything else. They would serve French or English according as they could get the best pay and terms of service; nor could they well feel the least interest in the disputes which set the two nations fighting. The French themselves were to find the same difficulty. After a much longer service than Bikkan Khan's, Abdul Rahman himself deserted the French and set up independently in the fortress of Elavananore (as Orme calls it) whence he impartially pillaged the villages in the occupation of the two companies, very much as the well known Yusuf Khan set up independently at Madura.

It was presumably to avoid these and similar inconveniences that after Tally's siege of Madras in 1758-59, the English set to work to organise their sepoy forces. The independent companies were formed into battalions, uniformed, officered, drilled on the same lines as the Company's European troops. To trace this latter history would lead one too far afield, and involve too long a story. It is, however, curious at the present time to reflect upon the origin of the 'sepoy' and to consider how it has come to pass that the successors of these soldiers of a century and a half ago are now fighting on European soil. Macaulay somewhere in speaking of the wide influences of the Seven Years' War observes that it set the Indians of the West fighting on the Mississippi and the Indian of the East fighting on the Cauvery. But what would he have said to a war which has called together from every province and division of the Empire, men differing infinitely in race and creed and language, but animated by a common spirit of hostility against a common foe?

Indian Industrial and Economic Problems

By V. G. KALE, M.A.,

(Professor, Fergusson College, Poona.)

CONTENTS:—Preface—Imperialism and Imperial Federation—An Imperial Customs Union and Tariff Reform—The Present Economic Condition of India—The Problem of High Prices—Twenty-five Years' Survey of Indian Industries—The Labour Problem in India—The Breakdown of Boycott—Swadeshi and Boycott—National Economics and India—High Prices and Currency—Fiscal Freedom and Protection for India—Indian Protectionism—Preferential Duties—India and Imperial Preference.

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The Congress, Conferences and Conventions.

For the last quarter of a century in India the closing week of December is being devoted to what may be called the stock-taking of the nation's progress in the year in all departments of activity. The Congress, Conferences and Conventions which held their sittings in Madras a few weeks ago have each deliberated upon one aspect or another of the national life, and the proceedings of each of those gatherings would fill a volume by themselves. From amongst the vast mass of interesting literature, all equally valuable and bearing on some vital phase of the nation's activities, the intelligent reader of newspapers would be anxious to know the salient features. To help the reader in that direction we have chosen to give in the following pages, a succinct summary of the proceedings of the various bodies that assembled in the closing week of December, not only in Madras but in other parts of India as well.

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS.

The twenty-ninth session of the Indian National Congress commenced on the 28th December amidst scenes of great enthusiasm. The large and beautifully decorated pavilion at the Doveton House, Madras, was packed to the full when the proceedings began with the singing of the national song. The session opened with the delivery of an address of welcome by the Chairman of the Reception Committee, Dr. Sir S. Subramanya Iyer, a veteran worker in the service of the Government and his country, whose eloquent speech, so full of wise reflections and practical suggestions was listened to with devoted interest by the immense gathering. He began with the need of the Congress meeting at "this hour of the world's travail." Sir Subramania Iyer did well in breaking from the usual strain of welcome addresses in that he drew pointed attention to one or two subjects of importance. He touched on the improvement of village life as the organic unit in the administration :—

The village as a corporate entity, is not only, as some think, moribund but long since dead. The chief agency in the preparation of this tragedy, in so far as the Madras Presidency is concerned, has been the ryotwari system. I say this with all the respect due to the great administrators who have managed to make that system the perfect thing they wished it to be from their own point of view. Whatever the virtues and merits thereof from such a point of view, it is certain that it has operated to root out the very faculty of spontaneous conjoint action for communal purposes on the part of the rural population. Any apparent lack of public spirit in one or other of the sections of the community is, of course, no excuse whatever for not making a vigorous effort to create it. For, let us remember in this connection that the capacity and qualifications of the next generation will be far superior to those of this generation, having regard to the rate at which we are moving on. Though it is five years since the Decentralization Commission submitted its proposals regarding Village Panchayats, nothing tangible has been done. A beginning should be made at once, and the best way of doing it will be to put an officer of good standing on special duty, to start these

institutions in selected tracts and develop them. Considering the paramount importance of the work, it would not be a bad idea to have a Director of such Panchayats for the Presidency, who would discharge in respect of this branch of public business, functions more or less analogous to those of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies with reference to his own department. Such a Director should be able to move among the people freely, speaking their language and arousing their enthusiasm by personal contact and influence. Unless exceptional efforts of the above description are made, things will continue as they are to the great detriment of public interest.

To the cheap taunt of the critic who says that the expansion of the Councils has done away with the utility of the Congress, he answered :—

No doubt, our Councils have done well during the short period of their existence. But, it should be remembered that the scope of their usefulness is, as yet, very limited. Furthermore, there are many questions of so general and fundamental a character, in relation to the whole country, as to render the meeting and personal conference and consideration, on the part of the leaders from time to time absolutely necessary. Consequently it is necessary to arrange for the carrying on of our work throughout the year systematically and as a first step towards it for raising the money needed for the purpose. One suggestion as to this is that a body, under designation of Congress Supporters or the like, be brought into existence, each member thereof paying a subscription, say of Rs. 25 per annum. I presume it will not be difficult to find in each Province a few hundred of such subscribers. The amount collected thus should be used towards the continuous work as just stated, the expenditure connected with the annual Meeting being met by special subscriptions raised in the particular Province concerned.

He concluded with a reference to the invincible proofs of Indian loyalty and the development of the new sympathy for Indian aspiration evinced by the press and people of England. Before concluding he exhorted the audience with the need equally of martial development :—

Let us, then, with all earnestness strive towards our goal, seeking all the perfections that would befit it, including the one desire by every lover of the Motherland, I mean the martial development which is as indispensable

to a nation as physical culture is to an individual. For surely without the one and the other neither the nation nor the individual can respectively exist in that condition of health and vigour, efficiency and virility which is the birth-right of both; towards which end the formation of Regiments of Indian Volunteers and greater liberty as to the possession of arms are among the necessary steps. It must be obvious to all that the possession of military capacity by His Majesty's Indian subjects on an adequate scale cannot but prove a real source of strength to the Empire itself. But at the same time it must be remembered that in seeking however the above *sine qua non* for the fulness of national life, it will not come until we inspire in the implicit confidence that what is so capable of misuse in unwise hands will ever be absolutely safe in our own. And it is as to this specially that the South African incident, more than once alluded to, will be found to possess a very real significance. For what can conduce more materially towards the arising of the confidence just mentioned than the attitude of our countrymen, the sterling value of which was so strikingly illustrated by that incident - an attitude of perfect amity and friendliness buoyed up by an invincible faith in the ultimate triumph of justice.

Babu Bhupendranath Basu, the President of the Congress, then made an eloquent speech pointing out the urgency of this session. He discoursed at some length on the present situation and the growing solidarity of the British and Indian interests and outlined the ideals of the Congress and the Indian nation :—

You may chain Prometheus, but the fire is lighted and cannot be extinguished. India wants a higher life, a wider sphere of activity and usefulness. India wants that her Government should be consistent with her growing self-respect and intellectuality. India wants that the presumption which has all along existed, and which the Board of Directors in 1833 made a vain attempt to dispel, namely, that the Indians can only rise to a certain limit, should be removed from the precincts of her Court, as it has been from the Statute Book, and the door to her Services should not be closed by artificial barriers against her own sons. India wants that her children should have the same rights of equal citizenship as other members of the Empire. India wants the removal of vexatious hinderances on the liberty of speech and freedom of the Press, fruitless and dangerous alike to the Government and the people. And, above all, India wants that her Government should be an autonomous Government under the British Empire. Then only the great benefits, which have emanated from British rule and which carry with them the memory of Poles, will be sweetened with the sweat of her brow.

What is our complaint against the Indian bureaucracy? Mr. Basu said :—

The Indian bureaucracy do not offer us any constructive programme for the future of India, no land of promise to her children. They are content to work for the day and take no thought for the morrow. An autocratic Viceroy or Secretary of State may put extra steam into the machinery of the Indian Government, or try to shut the safety-valve, but the great fly-wheel is not easily disturbed. And the bureaucracy have given us honest and conscientious workmen, not troubled it may be with

the visions of the future, but they have reason to be well pleased with their work. Why should India resent it? Her Government has always been that of one man's sway, whether she was an Empire or broken into small states of varying dimensions. Why should she object to the Government of an outside bureaucracy? My answer is: the days of the lotus water are gone, the world is swinging onward on the uplifting ropes of time, and in Europe, the war of nations, now in progress, will knock off the last weights of mediæval domination of one man over many, of one race over another; it is not possible to roll back the tide of wider line which is flowing like warm gulf-stream through the gateways of the West into the still waters of the East. If English rule in India meant the canonisation of a bureaucracy, if it meant perpetual domination and perpetual tutelage, an increasing dead-weight on the soul of India, it would be a curse to civilisation and a blot on humanity.

He then defined our ideal of Self-Government within the Empire and commended the praiseworthy attitude of Lord Hardinge, notably in relation to the South African question. But our grievances are not over.

The right to carry arms, the right to bear commissions in the Army and lead our men in the cause of the Empire, the right to form Volunteer Corps in the defence of hearth and home, how long will these be denied to the Indian people? How long will India toddle on her feet, tied to the apron strings of England? Time is she stood on her legs for herself as well as for England. What could be more humiliating to India and to England alike, if England were obliged in the hour of some great danger as Imperial Rome was in her day, to leave India unarmed and untrained to the use of arms as her civil population is, a prey to internal anarchy and external aggression? What commentary would it be on 150 years of British rule in India, that England found the people strong though disunited and left them helpless and emasculated? And what could be more glorious both for India and England than that India, strong in her men, strong in her faith, should stand side by side with England, share her troubles and her dangers and be joint defenders of their common heritage.

Mr. Basu then brings the vision of a renovated India :—

There is no use in vain regrets, but one cannot help thinking that under different circumstances, England could have put to-day on the battlefields of Europe not 70,000 Indian soldiers but a wall of men against which German militarism would have hurled itself in vain. And has not India justified faith in her? In this hour of danger the cry has come from every part of India—from all communities and classes for a rush to the front; it is obvious of the past and impregnate with the future. And may I, addressing myself to Lord Hardinge, tell him that this future is in his hands, that it will be a glory all his own, unparalleled in history, if India realises this future before he lays down his office: my appeal to him is not in the name of personal glory, it will be glory to the most high, for future generations in India and England will bless his name, for he will have done incalculably good to both; and this is not an appeal *ad misericordiam*; we stand at the bar of humanity and claim the fulfilment of obligations, of declarations and solemn

"It is the appeal of Belgium for the enforcement of her guaranteed rights. England is pouring forth her wealth, and what is more and no wealth can buy, the precious blood of her men for the fulfilment of her plighted word: her name will live as long as human history lives. Will India say that England has failed in her duty to India? It is not a prayer, but a call in the name of the people of India enforced by the moral sense of mankind, which, if religions are not mere myths and their teachings empty shibboleths, will survive the clash of arms and the fate of nations.

Mr. Basu concluded with these stirring words:—

The goal is not unworthy of our highest aspiration: it has satisfied the dignity and the self-esteem of the French in Canada and of the Boer in South Africa, who to-day are the staunchest supporters of England and when it comes to us, as I hope it soon will, it will strengthen and not weaken the bonds that unite England and India. To the spiritual frame work of the East has come the inspiration of the West. Let us combine the patience of the East with the energy of the West and we shall not fail. We are better situated to-day than Italy or Japan was in 1860: we are beginning to feel the strength and growing solidarity of the people of India; India has realised that she must be a vital and equal part of the Empire and she has worthily served her great opportunity. In the melting pot of destiny, race, creed, and colour are disappearing. If India has realised, so has England. Through the mouth of the Prime Minister, the English people have said to us:—"We welcome with appreciation and affection your proffered aid, and in an Empire which knows no distinction of race or class, where all alike are subjects of the King Emperor and are joint and equal custodians of our common interests and future, we here hail with profound and heartfelt gratitude your association side by side and shoulder to shoulder with the home and dominion troops under a flag which has a symbol to all of a unity that a world in arms cannot dissolve or dissolve."

It is no use looking backward. Let us be ready for the future and I see its vision. I see my country occupying an honoured and proud place in the comity of nations. I see her sons sitting in the Councils of our great Empire, conscious of their strength and bearing its burden on their shoulders as valued and trusted comrades and friends, and I see India rejuvenated and reincarnate in the glories of the future, broadened by the halo of the past. What does it matter if a solitary raven croak from the sand banks of the Jumna and the Ganges? I hear it not, my ears are filled with the music of the mighty rivers, flowing into the sea scattering the message of the future. Brother delegates, let us live as the ancients lived in the purity of heart so that the message may be fulfilled; let us forget the narrow barriers of man's creation; let us be humble and forget the pride of self; let us step across the barriers of prejudice; let us always be with our hand on the plough preparing the soil for the harvest of the future; let our heart strings be attuned to God and Country and then no power on earth can resist the realisation of that message the fulfilment of the Destiny that is ours. And assembled in this tabernacle of the people, let us pray to Him Who knoweth all hearts to grant us grace and strength that we may deserve and bear this further and this Destiny.

The Congress commenced its sittings on the second day in the presence of His Excellency

Lord Pentland the Governor of Madras, an event which was highly appreciated by the entire audience. In thanking H. E. the Governor for graciously attending the Congress, the President of the Congress spoke:—

I owe it to ourselves and to the people whom we represent in this great Assembly that I should on your behalf and in your name tender to his Excellency our profound gratitude for his presence here this afternoon. (Applause.) This is the first time in the history of the Congress that the ruler of a great province, the representative of the Sovereign, has been pleased to personally attend our deliberations and see for himself how the deliberations are conducted. We in the Congress, have been preaching for the last 30 years our great motto of co-operation and trust. There have been times indeed in the history of our organisation when we have been looked upon with some amount of distrust by those whose good-will we have always sought to obtain and co-operation with whom has been the guiding principle of our conduct. The presence here to-day of His Excellency puts the coping stone on that arch which we have been laboriously trying to build in the course of the last 30 years, and it in future the Congress pursues the policy of the past, not forgetting, as it cannot forget that, with that co-operation and trust must proceed hand-in-hand its great function of criticism, I am sure that with the encouragement we have received to-day the work that we will be able to achieve in the future will be much greater, much higher and much bigger for the nation to come than it has been in the past. Gentlemen, for this consummation we are truly grateful to his Excellency Lord Pentland who has been pleased to be present here to-day.

At this time, appropriately enough, Mr. Surendranath Banerjee with his wonted eloquence moved the Resolution on loyalty and gratitude. It was seconded by Mr. Govindaraghava Iyer. [*See pages 76 and 77 of this issue.*] Various other Resolutions touching every aspect of Indian grievances and aspirations were passed. Mrs. Annie Besant and Mr. Surendranath Banerjee spoke on the Resolution on Reciprocity between India and the Colonies, a brief summing up of which appears on page 74. The question of Indians in South Africa was dealt with by Mr. G. A. Natesan and others and an account of which is reproduced in page 79. The Congress also prayed for an extension of H. E. the Viceroy's term of office. A full text of the Resolutions passed by the Congress is printed on page 73. On the evening of the third day in closing the session, the President made a touching speech regretting that the hope of reconciling the two divided camps has not been realised in Madras. He hoped it would be effected next year in Bombay to which the Congress was invited by the Hon. Sir Vitaldas Damodar Thakarsay. The Resolution on the constitution of the Congress was postponed for the next session after a great deal of discussion

in the Subjects Committee. The President gave expression to it in the closing speech :—

I cannot refrain from referring to what is passing through my mind at the present moment as I am standing to address you, because we had felt, we had hoped, and we had cherished the hope that probably, in the serene atmosphere of Madras, we should succeed in healing the breach in the Congress which has unhappily arisen. I feel grateful to those who, for considerations for which I do not entertain anything but respect, found themselves impossible even now to join our ranks. I respect their scruples, but I hope that we have not been altogether idle in this Congress in trying to bring about a reconciliation between the two wings of our progressive party in India. I hope that when we next meet, it will be under the auspices of a united Congress. I hope that when we next meet all sections of the Congress will realise that strength lies in unity, (Hear, hear). When we next meet I hope that all the sections will realise that country is above self. Self-respect may be a great factor in life, but respect for the country is greater. They will realise that it is no degradation, no shame to lay aside self altogether in the cause of the country. It is no humiliation to come together in the cause of the country under the temple of the mother. I appeal to those outside this hall who are not within the sound of my voice, I appeal to them in the name of that country whose welfare they have all at heart, to lay aside all personal considerations and to close their ranks, for the times that are coming are such when it is absolutely essential, if we really want to secure those great and eternal rights of humanity for which we have been striving so long, that we should present a united front. I appeal to them in the language of the great races who are now fighting for the dominion of the world, I appeal to outsiders, to conventionalists or non-conventionalists, seceders and all, let our motto be not self-respect as between ourselves but let our motto be India above all. If that be our motto, the solution of the questions which divided us need not be, and will not be, very difficult.

Thus ended one of the most successful sessions of the Indian National Congress.

THE INDIAN INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE.

The tenth Indian Industrial Conference met in the Congress Pandal on the 26th December under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. Manmohandas Ramji, the well-known merchant and millionaire of Bombay. It is appropriate that the conference should meet at this critical time and devise measures and schemes calculated to make India more self-sufficing. In recent times the country has been entirely dependent on foreign imports and the effect of the war has been, as Mr. Manmohandas said, to show how the cessation of our trade with the enemy countries "has left us in the lurch about even several of our daily requirements. This is a position which no self-respecting people should tolerate. Let us then take a lesson from all these happenings and strive to make this land a great manufacturing, as it is already a great agricultural country." Mr. Ramji's address is full of practical observations and is

a weighty pronouncement on the economic needs of the country. Naturally the war has roused the interest of the nation to the industrial requirements. Referring to the 'capture of German trade,' Mr. Manmohandas said :—

There are in some quarters exaggerated ideas about our trade with these two countries (Germany and Austria). As a matter of fact our import trade with Germany forms but 69 p. c. of our total imports and our export trade with her is but 10.3 p. c. of our total exports. Similarly our import and export trade with Austria is 2.3 and 3.9 respectively of our total export and import trade.

As to what industries can well be developed in this country the President marked out the following :—

Glass, glass bangles and chimneys, cheap hardware, porcelain ware, umbrellas, cutlery, varnishes, boiled oils, soaps, pharmaceutical products from various organic raw materials found in our country, many of the sizing materials and chemicals used in various industries as bases, paper, leather goods, phosphatic manures, twines and ropes, needles and nails and screws, candles, cigars and cigarettes, tanning substances, lac products, starches and sugar.

Regarding the agitation for preferential tariffs Mr. Manmohandas holds decided views and he gave expression to them in the following words :

You must be knowing how the Tariff Reform Party of Great Britain attempted once to impose their doctrines on the Swadeshi school. This would mean opening our markets to the country which commands 65 p. c. of our import trade and closing it against those which command only the remaining 35 p. c. It would bring back the policy of 1894 when import duties on English piece-goods were done away with, with a vengeance. No, sirs, it is fatuous to talk about preferential tariffs for our country as long as we have not got a fiscal autonomy in the real sense of the word. Let us by all means devote our energies to the building up of new industries but let not any success be expected from artificial means but only from our endeavours to carry out the production with scientific skill and with as minimum a percentage of expenditure as possible. At the same time I must say that it is the primary duty of the Government to help forwards new industries by financial assistance.

The Chairman of the Reception Committee, Rao Bahadur P. Theagaroya Chetty also laid stress on the same point :—

The question of Indian Industrial policy, since the outbreak of the war, has received special attention and has assumed an extraordinary significance even in Great Britain. Only the other day, Reuter wired to us that at a meeting at Manchester it was resolved to establish a National Company for the manufacture of synthetic dyes and that the Government of Great Britain had offered to guarantee the interest on a million and a half pounds of debenture capital. If such is the interest the Home Government is taking in free and resourceful England, it looks a pity that the Indian Government should be only repeating the Secretary of State's orders of two years ago, issued in the then placid condition of affairs suited to the siring and advocacy of academical theories.

INDIAN SOCIAL CONFERENCE.

The Indian National Social Conference was held on the 31st December in the Congress Pavilion. About 300 delegates of both sexes from Bengal, Behar, Central Provinces and Bombay including those of this Presidency were present. Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar, Chairman of the Reception Committee in the course of his thoughtful welcome address pointed out the necessity of Government intervention in rescuing the minorities from the legal fetters of antiquity. Quoting Sir Henry Maine, he observed :—

'By our introduction of legal ideas and our administration of justice through regular courts' he said, 'we give a solidity and rigidity to native usage which it does not naturally possess. And to prevent the monstrous injustice which occasionally results from this process we must control it by the proper instrument, timely legislation.' The policy of the Government must undoubtedly be cast in future on more generous lines so as to enable a social evolution to take place commensurate with the stupendous progress we have made in many directions.

But Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar, went on to say :—

'To say that the Government is to pass laws if only there is a demand by the majority of the people, is futile. As well might one say that the Government must abolish the land tax and income tax because the majority of the people are against it. Is the Government always to characterize itself as an alien Government not competent to legislate concerning Hindu society? And who is to legislate if the Government does not?'

Of course the Hon. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri's Post-Puberty Marriage Bill came up for consideration and then the Protection of Minor Girls. The speaker spoke at some length on these important questions of the hour and wound up with a few observations on social service. In conclusion he said :—

The formation and maintenance of sound ideals of social reform are as important as the insistent demand of our critics to translate our theory into practice. It may not be possible for all social reformers to wear the martyrs' crown; but it ought to be easy for one and all of us to convince the members of their castes in our every day dealings with them, that in every department of life we are animated by the spirit of imperishable justice, whose voice is paramount to the call of the caste.

It was a very happy idea of the committee that they chose H. H. the Yuvaraj of Mysore to preside. Among the subjects that came under his purview are, universal education, abolition of infant marriages, social freedom for women, fusion of castes, foreign travel, the elevation of the depressed classes, widow marriage, etc.

Yet with all this need for rapid changes no social reformer can forget and do without the past of his people. 'We must,' says Bacon, in his Essay on Innovations, 'we must make a stand upon the ancient highway and then look about us and discover what is the straight and right way and so to walk in it.' That is to say, we must put new things in an old light, meaning that he is the wise reformer who shows by his teachings and his own life and example that the reform he is advocating is a necessity of the times, and is consistent with and merely a sequence of the best traditions and principles and practice of the past. It is thus that all ancient jurisprudence has grown, that the crude Twelve Tables of the Romans developed into the vast and highly scientific Justinian Code, the basis, nay, the original of all modern law. It will not do to stoek public feelings deeply attached to ancient traditions, by radical and extraneous, innovations, and the skill of a successful reformer of Hindu Society lies in finding a Sastrie sanction to the changes he advocates and so interpreting our ancient text as to suit the needs of the changing times.

The cause of social reform received a fresh vitalising impetus from the President of the Conference for which they were deeply grateful to him. His prayer was that this impetus should go on.

THE TEMPERANCE CONFERENCE.

The eleventh session of the All-India Temperance Conference took place at the Victoria Public Hall, Madras on the 30th of December. The Hon. Mr. B. N. Sarma who welcomed the delegates urged that it was the duty of the Government to wean the people completely from the drinking habit.

The Rev. Herbert Anderson, a sincere and devoted worker in the cause of temperance, who presided on the occasion began with a reference to the work hitherto achieved by the movement and showed the substantial results obtained in the year ending 1914. He also pointed out its relation with the Government's Excise Administration, deprecated the growing traffic in liquor and reviewed the forces for and against the triumph of temperance principles.

He urged in conclusion :—

Thus to secure the more rapid realization of our ideals there is a call to us to organize, co-operate and sacrifice. Is it too much to ask that at least one of the unofficial members of each Advisory Committee throughout India should organize a Temperance Society to help him in the due discharge of his important duties? May we not demand from Municipalities and Local Boards the election of suitable men to serve on the Advisory Committee, men who work for Temperance and really know something of Excise Administration so that they may serve the Administration of the country while helping on our movement? Is there not a new and inviting field for the large number of Social Reform Societies that have sprung up during the last few years?

PUNJAB HINDU CONFERENCE.

The sixth Punjab Hindu Conference met at Ferozepur on the 26th December and the following days. The Hon. Lala Kashi Ram, Chairman of the Reception Committee delivered an interesting address. A notable feature of the session was the Mahomedan gentry joined heartily in welcoming the President, Rai Saheb Lala Murlidhar of Ambala. Lala Kashi Ram pointed out among other things:—

"The census brought out the fact that the Hindu community was decreasing numerically. The population should increase here as was the case in other countries. The causes were many, the principal of them being their own ill-treatment of their brethren which made it possible for them to be tempted by offers of marriage or money. It should be an article of faith with them to receive back their fallen brethren. There was a time when it was necessary to strengthen the communal boundaries and to ex-communicate those that went beyond them. The need was to devise means whereby Hindus might grow and flourish.

The President who made his Speech in Hindi after referring to the lack of patriotism betrayed by some of his countrymen went on to deal at length with the causes of Hindu disunion, the chief of them being (1) the multiplicity of religious sects, (2) the non-acceptance of a single scripture for all, (3) the existence of countless castes and sub castes in place of the four *varnas*, (5) the existence of many languages and several scripts. He advocated the acceptance of one language, and one character along with one country, otherwise there could, he said, be no one Hindu nation.

Turning to education, he expressed gratitude to Government for having established Universities and colleges which they should try to avail of to the fullest extent. But the education imparted could not be useful to the fullest extent owing to (1) lack of religious education, (2) multiplicity of subjects, (3) excessive burden placed on the students, (4) increasing cost, (5) the imparting of instruction in languages, other than the mother tongue, and (6) absence of moderators in the examinations.

One important Resolution passed by the Conference may be noted. By the sixth Resolution Mr. Kunwar Sain (Principal, Law College), Rai Bahadur Bhawani Das (retired District Judge), Lala Hans Raj and Principal Vaswani of Dyal Singh College, were appointed a sub-committee to compile a short History of India suited to the requirements of Hindu boys and girls and a sum of Rs. 5,000 was placed at their disposal to carry out the duty entrusted to them.

DEPRESSED CLASSES MISSION.

The annual meeting of the Depressed Classes Mission Society, Madras was held on the 31st December at the Anderson Hall, Madras. His Excellency Lord Pentland lent his support to the movement by presiding over its deliberations. The report read by Mr. V. Govindan, the Secretary, showed marked progress in the direction of education.

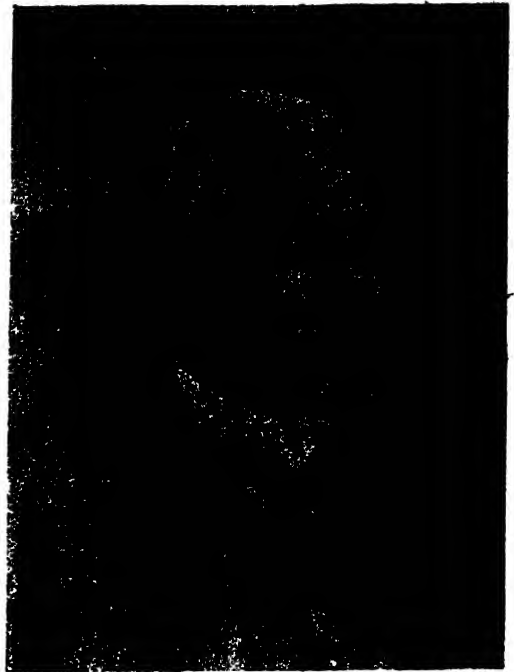
Mrs. S. Rangamma of Mysore in moving the adoption of the Report made a lengthy speech detailing the progress made in Mysore. Sir Narayan Chandavarkar gave details of the progress made in Bombay since 1906. His Excellency Lord Pentland made a stirring speech in the course of which he pointed out:—

This subject has been treated this evening from a deeply religious point of view. Let me put to you another point of view, and it is this: think of the economic loss to a country of the wealth and strength of so large a number of its people—(hear, hear)—the waste of life which is the true wealth of any country. Now this is recognised, and efforts are being made and have been made to remedy this weakness. Let us turn to the Madras Presidency. You have here in the Presidency 43 millions of people. I gather that you estimate the number of depressed classes at about one fifth of the total population of the Presidency. That means that one-fifth of the population are living in conditions which absolutely preclude their full development. Is there not an immense economic loss to the Presidency in all? Now, what are the remedies? Here, as elsewhere, laws will have to be altered, education will have to be improved and extended. But above all things, habits of mind and prejudices must be given up. New standpoints and new thoughts must be adopted, and above all things a new attitude of mind, must be accepted by us all in relation to the position of these classes.

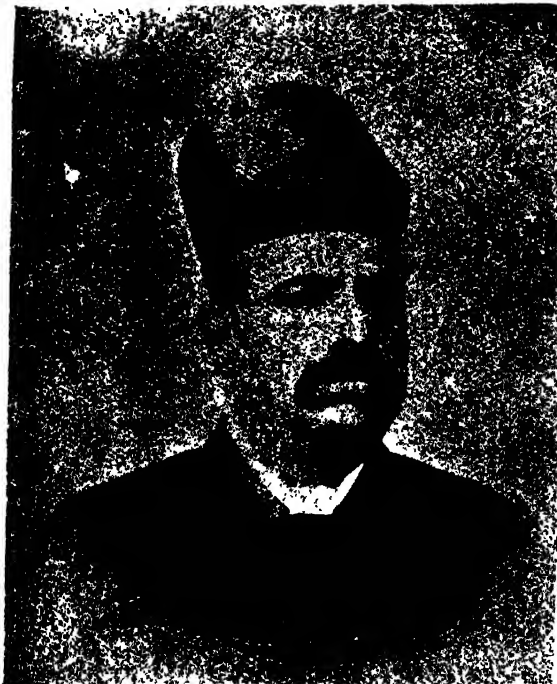
At noon on the same day the fifth session of the Depressed Classes Conference met at Cuddalore with the Hon. Rao Bahadur Kesava Pillai in the Chair. Among the Resolutions passed at the Conference the most important were those relating to the ejection of tenants from their homes by mirasdars, at their caprice, and their resort to usury as a means of coercing them into iniquitable terms of tenancy. The repeal of the Whipping Act was also advocated. The Chairman also dwelt on the iniquity of the indentured system, under which the poor emigrants so grievously suffered and explained to them that in view of the Government's anxiety to reduce their humiliating disabilities to a minimum, they might cherish hopes of early remedies for these great evils.



DR. SIR S. SUBRAHMANIA IYER.
Chairman, Reception Committee, Congress.



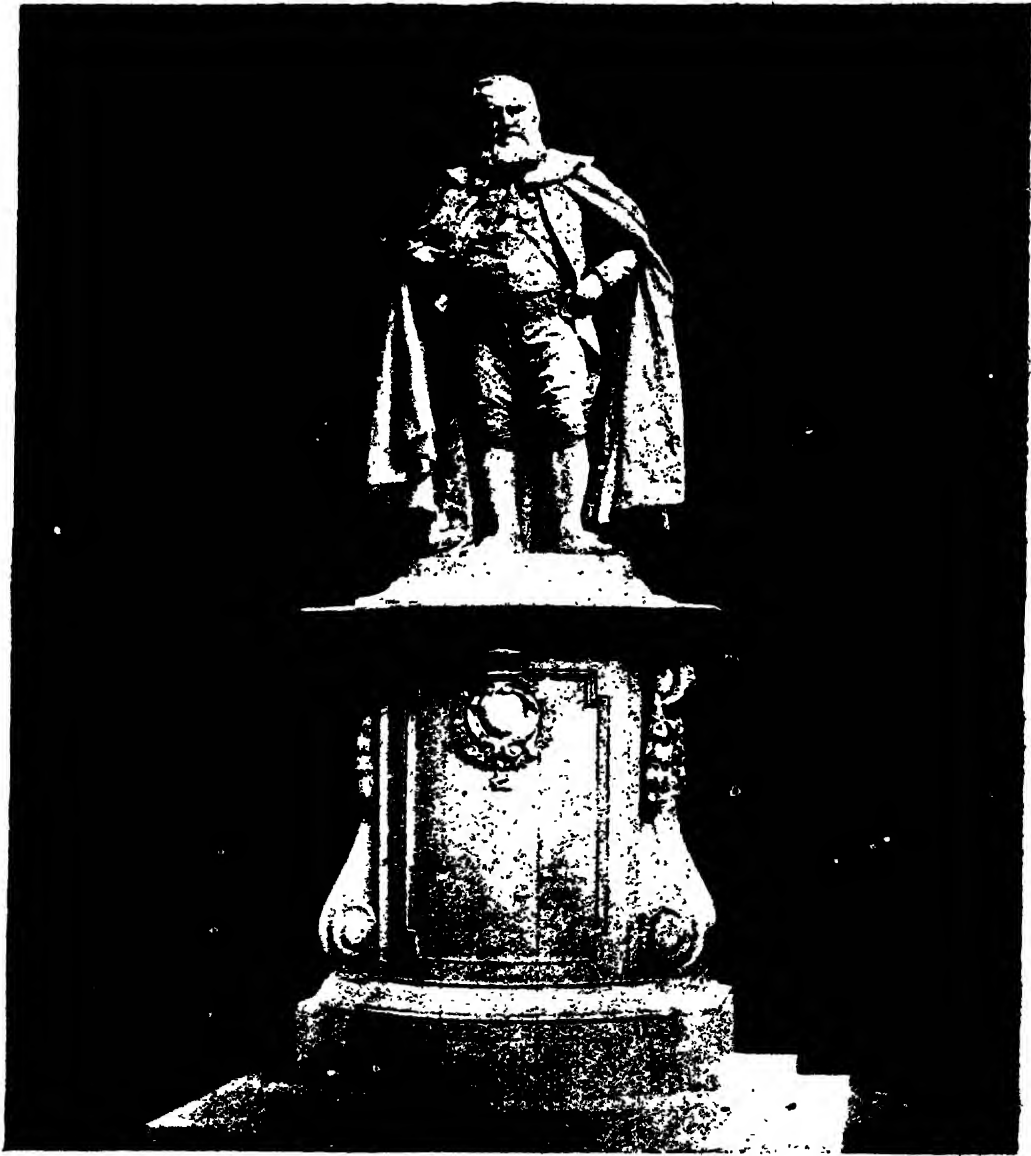
BABU BHUPENDRA NATH BASU.
President, Madras Congress.



HON. MR. MANMOHANDAS RAMJI.
President, Industrial Conference.



H. H. THE YUVARAJ OF MYSORE.
President, Social Conference.



THE RIPON STATUE IN MADRAS.
UNVEILED BY H. E. LORD PENTLAND, 29TH DEC., 1914.

THE THEISTIC CONFERENCE.

The All-India Theistic Conference was held at the Memorial Hall, Madras on Sunday the 27th December with Mr. Heramba Chandra Maitra in the chair. The proceedings commenced with a hymn and prayer. Mr. Ranga Rao, Chairman of the Reception Committee, welcomed the delegates in the name of the Theists of Southern India.

The President made a powerful and eloquent speech in the course of which he traced the history of the progress of the movement from its inception and the invaluable services rendered to it by the eminent preaching and organized efforts of leaders like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Keshab Chandra Sen, Ananda Mohan Bose and others. The speech was enlivened with personal reminiscences and the conclusion in which he claims that the ideals now actuating the workers in the social and political fields are identical with those of the Brahmo Samaj may be quoted. Mr. Maitra said :—

Ours is the ideal of a complete humanity. It is not a new ideal. I recall to mind the teachings of Plato. There is nothing loftier than the mind of Plato. To worship must be given the chief place in any scheme of right living in any study of perfection. The Brahmo Samaj has also striven to further the ideal of total perfection. 'Our religion' says Emerson, 'vulgarly stands on numbers of believers; whenever the appeal is made to numbers, proclamation is then and there made that religion is not.' He that finds God a sweet enveloping thought to him never counts his company. The Depressed Classes Mission in various parts of the country, the Working Man's Institutions conducted in Calcutta, the Kashi Hills Mission in Assam, all these bear witness to the fact that the Brahmo Samaj has not kept aloof.

The Conference held three sittings and from the number and variety of the speeches we may say that the session was no mean success. Among the frequent speakers were Mr. Hemchandra Sarcar, Professor N. G. Welinker, Sir N. G. Chandavarkar and several others. The President, on the third day when the deliberations of the Conference were all over, delivered his concluding speech in the course of which he said that there was nothing repugnant in the teachings of the Brahmo-Samaj to the ideal of nationality. If nationality is to be based on solid foundation, on the foundation of righteousness, they had no other ideal to adopt than that of spiritual Theism. In conclusion he asked them not to make religion a matter of pleasure or enjoyment, but it should be a deep conviction. If one was not able to realise the infinite nature of God one was blind. If the mind of God was not seen in his works, then education, culture, etc., would be useless.

MAHOMEDAN CONFERENCE.

The annual session of the All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference began on the 27th of December at Rawalpindi. Among the audience were a number of influential Mussalmans of the Frontier Province and neighbouring districts of the Punjab and a sprinkling of delegates from other provinces. The Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner of Rawalpindi and General Sir George Kitson, Commanding the Second Rawalpindi Division were also present. Another noticeable feature was the presence of a number of Moslem ladies behind the purda.

Haji Rahim Baksh, in his Presidential address, alluded to the war, pointing out the justice of England's cause. He dwelt at some length on the basis of their loyalty to the British Raj. He then referred to the Educational problems which he said were in a fluid state. He touched on religious education and said that religion divorced from education could only tend to make the products intellectual pugilists. Referring to the proposed Moslem University he said :—

The fact is that Indian education as given by the universities has come to be thoroughly dominated and paralysed by artificial examinations on the one hand, and text-books on the other, which test the memory but not the intelligence of the students. The result is that some gifted students may rise above the trammels of the rigid and unprofitable system, but the vast majority succumb slowly to the slavery of the text-books and the fetish of the examination. I trust that our University will not be a blind imitation of the existing universities, and that when the time will come to work out its shape and its scope, you will not forget the evils of the present system.

The President, in concluding, pleaded for the expansion of female education and dwelt upon the importance of the conservation of ancient learning. He said that education like charity bleaseth him that giveth and him that receiveth.

The Commissioner of the Division made a short but effective speech in the course of which he observed :—

The administration of this country is becoming more difficult and more complicated every day, but I assure you that the encouragement and support which we receive from the knowledge that our efforts are understood and appreciated, and we really see that you know and understand after fifty year's experience that our ideals are your ideals and that our government is broad based on the good will of the people of this country—I tell you, gentlemen, that the realisation of this fact is of the greatest assistance and the greatest encouragement to us in our daily task. We go forward with a higher courage and a greater confidence, because of the attitude of the great Mahomedan community of India. Gentlemen, I wish all success for your Conference. May your deliberations be fulfilled for the good advancement of your community,

THE KSHATRYA CONFERENCE.

The Kshatrya Conference was held at Aligarh on the 31st December under the Presidentship of H. H. the Maharaja of Dumraon. The Kshatrya Conference is an august body and it has had for its presidents in the past their Highnesses the Maharajas of Bikanir, Idur, Kashmir, Solona and other influential Princes. H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir who was to have presided over the deliberations had sent his address which was read and listened to with interest. Touching the present war H. H. the Maharaja of Dumraon said :—

What should be our duty now? Shall we remain inactive? Certainly not, we must do our best to help the Government in all possible ways in this crisis. We are proud of those brave members of our community who are now fighting the King's enemies in distant lands. It is a matter of great satisfaction to us that two of us have obtained the much coveted distinction of V. C. But, gentlemen, we must not be satisfied of this only. Every one of us who can fight and whose services will be required by the government must go and fight this righteous cause. It is a golden opportunity for the kshatryas to show their prowess and loyalty. As for the ultimate success I have not a shadow of doubt that our King Emperor will be victorious. In the language of the great charioteer of Kurukshetra I say, *jato dharma stato jaya*. Before resuming my seat I again thank you for this great honour and the patient hearing which you have given me.

As a matter of fact some of the illustrious members of the race are already in the field winning laurels not only for their community but for India and the Empire.

LADIES' UNION.

One interesting function of the Christmas week in Madras deserves notice. About four hundred ladies were gathered together at the Government Girls' Training School on the occasion of the celebration of the third anniversary of Sri Saradha Union. The gathering presented an animating spectacle when Mrs. Ramabhai Ranade of Bombay delivered her address. After the usual exhortations she gave a vivid picture of what women are doing in Bombay. She said :

We have schools for girls and high schools for grown up unmarried girls; we send our girls to colleges and there are many girls who pass B. A., M. A., and L. M. and S. Examinations now. For widows, we have homes, where they receive regular and systematic education and there are training colleges for women also. We train them as teachers for Primary schools, we get them trained as nurses and midwives, because these two lines of service are the most appropriate for women to be useful to themselves and to the society.

With such a record any society might be proud, and no wonder it was an inspiring address,

INDIAN CHRISTIAN CONFERENCE.

The first All-India Conference of Christians began at Bishop's College, Calcutta, on December 28, under the presidency of Dr. George Nundy of Hyderabad, Deccan. The gathering included delegates from almost all parts of India and Burma. The President said that the object of the Conference was to bring the various Christian Associations into close touch to discuss matters affecting the community to adopt measures which tend to promote the welfare of the Indian Christians and to represent to the Government their needs and grievances. Dr. Nundy said that Indian Christians were very divided but at this Conference they had come forward as an united body. The speaker thought there were really four million Christians and there had been a great increase in the last ten years. Their percentage of educated men and women stood highest among all the communities. Female education particularly had become widespread among Indian Christians.

Resolutions were passed expressing loyalty to the Crown and sympathy with the Viceroy and Raja Sir and Lady Harnam Singh in their respective recent bereavements. In the afternoon the present law regarding Indian Christians was discussed.

THE MAITHIL CONFERENCE.

The Sixth Session of the Maithil Conference was opened at Bannai (Mandar Hills) on the 25th of December by the Hon. Maharaja Bahadur of Darbhanga. In his stirring address the Maharaja Bahadur gave some very wholesome advice to the Maithil—the community of which he is a distinguished member. The speech was appropriately in the Maithil dialect and the Maharaja exhorted the members of the community to shake off its lethargy and march on with the spirit of the times.

Speaking of religious faith the Maharaja Bahadur dwelt at length on the virtues of Sanatana Dharma. The Maharaja announced that he was contemplating to establish a Brahmacharya Ashram and a school at Mangarpatti, whose sole object would be the inculcation of Sanatana Dharma and the uplifting of the Maithil Society. But the project could not be taken in hand unless the success of the institution could be assured. All that he could do was to furnish the wherewithal. But all of them should co-operate to make the proposed institution an accomplished fact.

CURRENT EVENTS

BY RAJDUARI.

THE ALLIES' FAVOURABLE POSITION.

It is satisfactory to record that during the last four weeks the position of the Allies on the western theatre of the War has decidedly improved. The stalemate which was so transparent during the months of November and December, has rapidly given way, so much so that they have been in a position to take the offensive and by slow but sure degrees advancing to the German frontier. Conscious of this steady advance all along the line, the enemy resolved to make the most violent attacks wherever they thought some vantage ground might be obtained in order to break through the wall of the sturdy hearts of oak, English and French. The weather during the last weeks has been of a most inclement character every way for a more rapid advance, while the hardships endured by the brave but patient soldiery, as described by more than one eye-witness, have been of an unprecedented character by reason of fog and icy cold, and storm and rain, and, lastly, by the overflow of the Aisne. All these have, however, been manfully borne without a murmur by the troops who seem only to be determined at all cost and hazard to win. And they are no doubt right in their belief that come what may, and be the hardships accidental to the campaign never so unparalleled, the ultimate victory was theirs. Thus this fine and healthy spirit pervading all ranks is indeed a great and invaluable asset of the Allies. The officers are highly encouraged and the confidence in their men is unbounded. The *esprit de corps* could not be better. All are resolved to do their very best to bring once for all the barbarous militarism of these modern Huns, who affected to be so cultured, to a state of such humiliation as never before known in any war. Then, again, coupled with this indomitable spirit, one has to record the personal valour of many a soldier and officer which has led to flow from the fountain source of honour, rewards highly prized and worthy to be handed down as heirlooms and honourable traditions. The bravery is conspicuous and both the British and the French are proud of the value of the material which they respectively possess. Thus it is that the enemy has found in his opponents a sturdy mass of human beings to whom to vanquish has become now almost an insuperable task. Whether it is at Ypres or Lille, or at

Soisson and Rheims, or in the Vosges, every attack, generally of a most violent and desperate character, has been repulsed, aye, repulsed with execution which has been telling most heavily by way of the dead and the wounded. Of late the Germans, foiled on all sides, made the most violent of all attacks recently known at Soisson by hurling masses of men, veterans and raw recruits, to penetrate the strong walls of the Allied armies in order to make a dash on Paris. But those masses were hurled back, albeit that the Emperor himself was present at the time of the attack, no doubt to offer encouragement to the ranks. But it was all a losing game. He must have clenched his teeth and bitten his tongue to find the opposing army fighting so well and victoriously. The Aisne was overflowing in one place and that compelled a retirement in order to drier ground three miles back. But it had been accomplished without any loss of military prestige or any disturbance in the programme of the strategy developed. Everywhere in short, artillery duels and heavy battery fusillade have been met with such strength as to eventually silence them. It is recognised on all hands that the artillery of the Allies has proved superior to that of the enemy in every engagement from first to last during the five months and more of the bloody war which has already claimed hundreds of thousands of German victims. So that it is correct to say, without a tinge of exaggeration that the stalemate condition which was so much transparent in November and December has given way in January to a brave advance forward. It is slow but steady and that in the midst of all the hardships caused by the inclement winter. Every week that passes gives evident signs of the greater strength of the Allies by way of well-equipped and well-trained reinforcements, while the enemy is obliged to call in his reserves of all kinds. Thus the Allies are in a better position now to take the offensive, which leads military experts to hope that before long the enemy will not only be driven from the frontier but pursued by the Allies. The invasion of the land of the original invaders is imminent.

PROGRESS OF RUSSIA.

In the eastern theatre of the war, too, there is every reason for the Allies to be quite satisfied

with what single-handedly the Russians have achieved. Here, too, the rigours and hardships of the severe winter have been endured with exemplary patience, while the best fighting qualities of the Russian soldier have been fully brought out. In this campaign on the Vistula and in Galicia, the Russians have not only restored their military prestige but enhanced their former military reputation. They too are now in a better position to carry on the war than they were at the start. Men are pouring in hordes on the enemy's country and vigorous attacks are daily made, with the result that Thorn is now 45 miles from the head-quarters and assuming that the weather moderates there is every chance of that strategic spot being reached at an early day. Anyhow, sooner or later a fierce struggle must ensue there. With Thorn in Russian hand, both the material and moral success will be great. In Poland too the enemy has made no material progress in spite of violent attacks, even of an unscrupulous character by way of false flags of truce. The Russians are now equipping an army of 810,000 men which is evidence of the grim reality of the war being waged to the bitter end. All wish that it may soon end, seeing what a tremendous loss of life goes on from day-to-day.

GERMANISED TURK.

Affairs at Constantinople are far from cheery. Indeed the ministerial party, though looking askance at the policy of the military dictators inspired openly by Germans is unable to move its little finger and check the progress of the war going on with disastrous results in Asiatic Turkey. There a whole army has been annihilated and the remnants vigorously pursued while flying in disorder. The Russians have gained victory after victory during the last four weeks and occupied places which will afford an excellent base of operations to pursue the beggarly force, ill-equipped, starving, and otherwise hopelessly desperate, till they are driven out on the northerly coast of Asia Minor. The Anatolian soldiery is nowhere. In short a dry rot prevails in the Ottoman army and it may not be many weeks before the Russians are masters of a greater part of Asiatic Turkey. But Turkey is lured on to its fate in face of the colossal defeats she has incurred. Having lost all, she has been advancing in the direction of northern Persia. She has already crossed the frontier, occupied Tabriz and put to death many of the helpless and destitute residents, while the Governor is wounded in the

action against odds. Persia has emphatically protested and a Russian force is marching to drive away the Turk who has made a demonstration there, under the pretence of waging a holy war in which Islam does not believe. Even the wild Bedouins who were organised as a mercenary force 25,000 strong have after a brief service of three days retired to their places, starving and in tatters. The fate of Asiatic Turkey is sealed. The attempt to attack Egypt after crossing Syria has had perforce to be abandoned. The army of the Caucasus is in full march while the Turcoman force from the Caspian is directing its steps toward Tabriz to protect Persia. The British too in the valley of the Mesopotamia have been most successful and broken the back of the Turkish troops in that quarter. Many of the wounded are being carried away to the nearest place and the narrative related by our Indian troops returning shows how Turkey is exhausted and unable to cope with the opponents.

EGYPT AND SOUTH AFRICA.

Egypt is quiet and all fears of an invasion from Syria, are dissipated. It was a wild and ambitious project of the German chauvinists which has egregiously failed. Egypt was never better defended than she is now, thanks to the foresight of Earl Kitchener and his recent directions as the Secretary of State for War. Perfect tranquillity prevails since Egypt has been proclaimed a Protectorate and absolutely an independent principality. The new Sultan is a personage of great experience and varied administrative abilities which augur well for the future well-being and progress of that country. Freed now for ever from the nominal yoke of the Ottoman, she is bound to advance under the protecting and beneficent ægis of the British and that is a wise action of the Home Government to select Sir W. Mac Mahon as the First High Commissioner of the Protectorate.

In South Africa, German aggression has been well met by the Union Government in the west. Some sanguinary engagements have taken place on the border which have broken the back of the enemy and it is fully expected that under the vigorous policy of General Botha the Germans will soon be cleared out from the southwest. The rebels too have been well handled so that the arms of the British are triumphant.

NAVAL WARFARE.

As to naval warfare the greatest satisfaction was felt at the way in which Captain Sturdee

engaged the enemy's warships in the Falkland Isles and put an end to the cruising ravages of the three ships of the enemy. Only one has escaped. But the *Dresden* is being well watched and no doubt the same sturdy captain will soon bring her to bay. This was the most important of the naval warfare hitherto and has cleared the Atlantic of the marauding enemy. The trade of the world is greatly relieved and a real sense of relief has been afforded. In the North Sea, the enemy took advantage of a specially foggy night to elude the watch of the British flotilla on the Yorkshire coast, and raided Scarborough, Whitby and Hartlepool, doing no inconsiderable damage to property and killing innocent women and children by their bombardment which is execrated by all the civilised world and protested as a violation of the conditions of war. Over hundred were killed and many were injured. But the people have taken this barbarism with equanimity. Indeed it has further inflamed the patriotic spirit of the Briton who has since gone briskly recruiting more than ever to the great satisfaction of Earl Kitchener. The flotilla was alert and though it pursued the cruisers it failed in tripping. But more caution and vigilance are now kept on the easterly coast and it is problematical whether any further raids would be ventured. The navy of the enemy has not yet come out in the open to have a decisive engagement. It chooses rather to destroy the British Navy by mines and other subterfuges. Meanwhile some Russian merchant and other ships are reported to have been sunk in the Baltic. Contrabands of war are now and again made the subject of complaint and protest by the neutral powers, specially the United States. A note was presented by its ambassador

to Sir Edward Grey on the subject, who has given a very effective reply in a most friendly spirit. Sweden, too, has lately declared its uneasiness, but there is no force in the complaint.

Neutrality has its advantages as well as its risks and inconveniences and unless the Powers, after the close of the war, revise the regulations touching contraband by the light of the present experience they must bear and grin as there is no redress for their grievances.

THE POPE.

His Eminence the Pope during the Christmas week, earnestly appealed to the Emperor William to allow the holy week to pass by and proclaim temporary peace and goodwill. But the efforts were pre-destined to fail, seeing in what mood and temper the Mailed Fist is living since his embattled hordes in the Aisne have been repulsed, and how on other localities his arms have suffered reverses of no-mean a character. Even Christmas day was not allowed to pass by without bloodshed which is ample evidence of the great culture which was credited to his nation by the civilised world. Even the most barbarous and uncultured might have raised his flag of truce and at least lay reversed his arms. Such is the Christianity of the cultured, while the population is daily crying out for want of the necessary food and the egregious professors of economy are pacifying them by calls to patriotism, as if patriotism could serve to allay the wants of nature. Though it may yet be too soon to tell what famine in the enemy's country may bring forth, there cannot be any doubt that a rebellion of the belly may be the surer means of ending this bloody and unrighteous war, the like of which the world has never witnessed.

Speeches and Writings of Dadabhai Naoroji.

This is the first attempt to bring under one cover an exhaustive and comprehensive collection of the speeches and writings of the venerable Indian patriot, Dadabhai Naoroji. The first part is a collection of his speeches and includes the addresses that he delivered before the Indian National Congress on the three occasions that he presided over that assembly; all the speeches that he delivered in the House of Commons and a selection of the speeches that he delivered from time to time in England and India. The second part includes all his statements to the Welby Commission, a number of papers relating to the admission of Indians to the Services and many other vital questions of Indian administration. The appendix contains, among others, the full text of his evidence before the Welby Commission, his statement to the Indian Currency Committee of 1898 and his replies to the questions put to him by the Public Service Committee on East Indian Finance.

860 pages, Crown Octavo: Rs. 2. To Subscribers of "The Indian Review," Rs. 1-8.

G. A. NATESAN & CO., BOOKSELLERS, 4, SUNKURAMA CHETTY STREET, MADRAS.

THE WORLD OF BOOKS

[SHORT NOTICES ONLY APPEAR IN THIS SECTION.]

Mayne's Criminal Law of India. *Revised and Edited by Dr. S. Srinivathan, Bar.-at-Law, Higginbothams Limited, Madras.*

The last edition of this work was brought out by Mr. Mayne himself more than ten years ago and the extent and importance of the changes effected both in the Statute Law and in its interpretation justify the publishers in bringing out a new edition of Mr. Mayne's great work. The editor has taken care to incorporate into the book such of the recent English decisions as are calculated to elucidate the general principles of law. Owing to these important additions the last three chapters of the third edition dealing with criminal pleadings and procedure have been dropped. What with the notes and appendices and the cases annotated with rulings, the book will be found of value not only to the students of law but equally to the practitioners as well.

The Demi-Gods. *By James Stephens. Macmillan: Empire Library.*

The Demi-Gods are three angels who come down to earth, and divesting themselves of their magnificent robes and crowns and wings, trudge along the Irish country roads with Patty Mac Cann, a travelling tinker of vagrant and predatory habits, his daughter Mary, and their ass. The angels have come down to earth to gain certain knowledge, which they do from the folk of the roads and of the country fairs. Mr. Stephens' descriptions of the free open air life of Irish vagrants are very vivid, and he regales us with wonderful stories of Heaven and Hell with which he has already made us familiar. The author is at his best in describing the joint adventures of the humans and the angels, which affords him an opportunity of giving free vent to his humour, humanity and powers of poetical expression.

Pictorial Kashmir. *By Gaya Prasad Singh, B.A., B.L. The Beharee Press, Kashmir: Price Rupee One.*

Kashmir is perhaps the most picturesque province in all India and abounds in scenes of art and nature that can scarcely be rivalled. Mr. Singh offers in his booklet six chapters descriptive of different scenes from that land of scenery with appropriate illustrations. Besides being a valuable guide book, *Pictorial Kashmir* comprises a series of very readable essays.

Stories from Mediæval Romance. *Told by Netta Syrett. Clarendon Press, Oxford.*

This collection is a varied one, and includes not only such famous and popular stories of romance as those of Robin Hood and Robin Goodfellow, but also others less generally known such as 'Tom a Lincoln.' This last was written early in the seventeenth century and is in truth no mediæval romance at all, but has been included because of its resemblance to stories like 'Hron of Bordeaux.' The author re-tells the two-thirteenth century stories of 'Constant the Emperor' and 'the Friendship of Amys and Amile,' both based on Mr. F. W. Bourdillon's translation from the French. Two of the oldest stories in the collection are 'Floris and Blanchefleur' and 'King Robert of Sicily.' The stories will appeal to all lovers of legendary lore.

The Story of Florence Nightingale. *By Amy Steelman, T. C. & E. C. Jack, London.*

It is appropriate that a life of Florence Nightingale should be published at this time: and Messrs. Jack have placed before the public a very delightful and readable account of the life and career of this great and good woman. The book is very tastefully printed and got up and besides four plates in colour, contains also a number of pictures in black and white from the pencil of M. V. Wheelhouse. The life story of the "Lady of the Lamp" is charmingly told in these pages.

Buddha and Buddhism. *By Pandit Shyama Shanker, Francis Griffiths, London.*

English books on Buddhism are increasing rapidly. In fact the religion and philosophy of Buddhism has a peculiar attraction even amidst all the hypercritical tendencies of modern thought. But the personality of Buddha has a unique fascination for all classes of people. It is therefore a very happy idea of the publishers to offer the public a handbook like this which aims at popularising the life, the doctrines and sayings of one of the oldest and greatest reformers of the world. Five hundred millions of people follow the religion of the great Tattagatta and it is only meet that the doctrines of so popular a religion should be made clear to the English speaking world. Mr. Shyama Shanker has collected some of the most precious sayings attributed to the great founder from reliable sources.

DIARY OF THE WAR

December 16. German submarine trial at Bruges.
Another air raid on Freiburg.
Two Austrian destroyers sunk by mines.
Servian victory at Valjevo.

December 17. German naval raid on Scarborough,
Whitby and Hartlepool.
British naval bombardment of Belgian coast.
Belgian success on left bank of the Yser.
Germans repulsed in Alsace.
Germans concentrating on Vistula.
Serbians re-capture Belgrade.

December 18. Egypt declared a British Protectorate.
Statements from Petrograd that the Kaiser ordered
the capture of Warsaw at all costs.
Germans defeated and vigorously pursued on the
Mlava front.
The German Cruiser *Friedrich Karl* sunk in the
Baltic.
The bombardment of Gulf of Saros put the Turks to
flight.
Conference between the Scandinavian monarchs.

December 19. The death is announced of Lieutenant
Hardinge, son of the Viceroy.
France recognises the British Protectorate over Egypt.
According to Dutch reports of the violent fighting on
the Yser, the artillery from the British fleet is said
to play havoc in the German ranks.
The Allies have gained ground near Nieuport.
The Scandinavian Monarchs' meeting at Malmoe is
officially stated to have been a success.

December 20. The French gain ground south of
Dixmude.
The new Sultan of Egypt was solemnly installed.
The Aga Khan has arrived at Cairo to assist in the
ceremony of accession of sultan Hussain.
The rebel leader Captain Fourié was court-martialled
and shot.
The Scandinavian Kings' Conference has terminated.
The three countries will assist each other in preserv-
ing neutrality.

December 21. A sortie from Przemyśl failed lamenta-
bly.
An Italo-Rumanian League formed to strengthen the
bonds uniting the two countries.
A German hydroplane dropped two bombs on Calais.
The Kaiser has completely recovered and has returned
to the front.
Progress was made by the Russians round Przemyśl.
The Russians seized part of the defensive works.
The Austrian offensive in Galicia definitely checked.
The Germans in the Mlava region retired to the line
of Lauenburg-Neidenburg.

December 22. The Russians maintain their position
in the Bzura river.
Russians pushing back Germans in the Mazawa
direction.
Russians retiring from Pitorkow to Opoczno 25 miles
further east.

December 23. The French gain a footing at Bourevilles.
The Russians are strengthening their position on the
Vistula.
An airman drops bombs in Straßburg.
The Germans attack Angola.

December 24. Better progress is being made, owing
to additional men and guns, in West Flanders.
The bombardment from the sea, on the German right
wing in West Flanders.
An Austrian submarine torpedoing a French battle-
ship; causing no harm.
A German aeroplane drops a bomb in a Dover
garden.
Turko-German troops defeated near the Van.
Troops from Przemyśl made a sortie, but are defeated.

December 25. A vigorous general advance of the Allies.
An enemy aeroplane passes over Sheerness.
The *Dresden* escapes to Chile.
A German regiment is cut off in Poland.

December 26 to 28. Air raid at Cuxhaven.
Considerable damage was done to the German ships.
The Germans in Central Poland suffering grave losses
in an abortive attack to the south-east of
Skierniowiec.
The Austrians definitely evacuated the left of the Nida.
South of Upper Vistula fighting continues to develop
favourably to the Russians.
The Austrian retreat towards Dukla Pass in the Carpa-
thians.
German advance on the Bzura is stopped.

December 29. It is announced that Russia has captured
15,000 prisoners in a week's fighting.

December 30. Indian troops inspected by H. H. the
Aga Khan at Cairo.
Enden's Captain is interned in England.
Russians have repulsed the Turks in the Nordenskiöld
region.
Allies' advance in Nieuport district, and consolidate
the ground gained all over the front.

December 31. The Bank of France has been removed
back again to Paris.
Seven German airships drop bombs on Dunkirk caus-
ing damage to buildings.
Russians advance victoriously in Western Galicia.
An Austrian battleship is torpedoed by a French
submarine, but being near the docks, escapes there.
Strong Turkish column is routed by Russia.
Germans are driven off from the Bzura.

January 1. The battleship *Formidable* is sunk in the
British Channel.
Six new Armies are created.
Half the village of Steinbach is occupied.

January 2. 201 of the *Formidable's* men are reported
saved.
Belgians take a gun down canal, land it and drive off
Germans, six steersmen being shot one after another
on the way.

January 3. Flight Commander Hewlett leaves Ymuiden for England.
Austrian fight across Carpathians becomes a rout.
All German attacks on the east are foiled.
French offensive is progressing in Alsace.
Turkish Cabinet reconstruction is proving difficult.
Paper money is going to be issued beyond gold reserve.
French aviators bombard Metz.
Further progress is made in Steinbach.
2nd Wessex Division arrives in Bombay.

January 4. Steinbach is captured by French.
Progress is made in Upper Alsace.
Russia, having captured several towns on the Rumanian frontier, holds the strategic railways to western Galicia and Hungary.
Anti-German feeling in Constantinople.

January 5. Another vain attack on Steinbach.
Considerable progress eastwards of Nieuport.
The advance towards Tahn holds its ground.
A company is formed in Frankfurt to store corn.
Thirty Commissions have been given to non-commissioned officers for services in the field.
The Russians are advancing rapidly through south-east Galicia towards Hungary.
In the Uzok Pass a whole battalion surrenders.
The Turkish 9th army Corps, with its General and three Divisional Commanders, is captured.
The Germans arrest Cardinal Mercier.
General Joffre says the Allies are preparing for their final victory.

January 6. An agreement between the belligerents to exchange incapacitated prisoners of War is published.
Unsuccessful attacks by Germans in Flanders.
A Rumanian statesman says that Rumania will join the War in the spring.

January 7. French advance towards Mulhausen.
Some progress eastward of Nieuport is made.
The Russian victories at Ardahan.
The Revolution in Albania is spreading.

January 8. Active cannonading in Flanders and Arras.
A steady advance all along the front is reported.
Two Turkish transports are sunk.
The convoying Turkish cruiser escapes.
Preparations to evacuate Constantinople.

January 9. H. M. the King visits the Indian wounded at Brighton.
Recruiting for the Indian Army is reported good.
Germany tries to explain the Mercier incident.
French Premier's son is killed.
The Russians are crossing Bukovina.
The Dutch loan is badly subscribed.

January 10. A report arrives of a German Army Order, threatening any soldiers who exchange little courtesies with the enemy with the penalties of high treason.

January 11. Sixteen German aeroplanes appear over the British Channel, approaching England.
A German aeroplane over Amiens is brought down by French.
The Uhlans reappear in Flanders.
The Russian warships in Black Sea damage Turkish warships.

January 12. Two German aeroplanes approach Paris.
Albanian insurgents occupy Kuspul.
Hungarian peasants are rising.
The German advance on Warsaw abandoned.

January 13. The Turks occupy Tabriz.
Heavy fighting goes on in the Caucasus.
Germans attempt to resume the offensive in north Poland.

January 14. There is furious fighting east of Rheims and in North Soissons.

DIARY OF THE MONTH

January 1. Further correspondence is published with reference to the proposal of the All-India Hindu University.

January 2. The Annual Conference of the South India Teachers' Union was held at the Pachayappa's Hall, Madras.

January 3. H. M. the King has approved of the appointment of Sir Harcourt Butler to be Lt.-Governor of Burma.

January 4. Four hundred and ten sikhs who are on their way to India arrived at Rangoon to-day from the straits.

January 5. The hearing of the Delhi conspiracy case appeal was resumed to-day at the Punjab Chief Court.

January 6. The Hon. Mr. Clark met the Committee of the Bombay Chamber of Commerce and discussed the economic situation.

January 7. Capt. J. W. Petavel delivered an address on India's Poverty Problem at Calcutta with the Maharaja of Coimbatore in the chair.

January 8. H. E. Lady Wellington discoursed on the Causes of infantile mortality at a gathering in Bombay.

January 9. Mr. and Mrs. M. K. Gandhi arrived at Bombay amidst an enthusiastic welcome.

January 10. Interviewed by a *Times of India* representative Mr. Gandhi said he proposed to remain in India and serve the Motherland for the rest of his days.

January 11. A special Bench of the Calcutta High Court rejected the application of the Editor of the *Al Hilal* in the order of forfeiture of copies of the *Comrade* of the 26th September.

January 12. The Report on the work of the Indian Students' Department by Mr. C. E. Mallett has been received in India.

January 13. A movement is on foot in Bombay to affiliate the College of Commerce with the University.

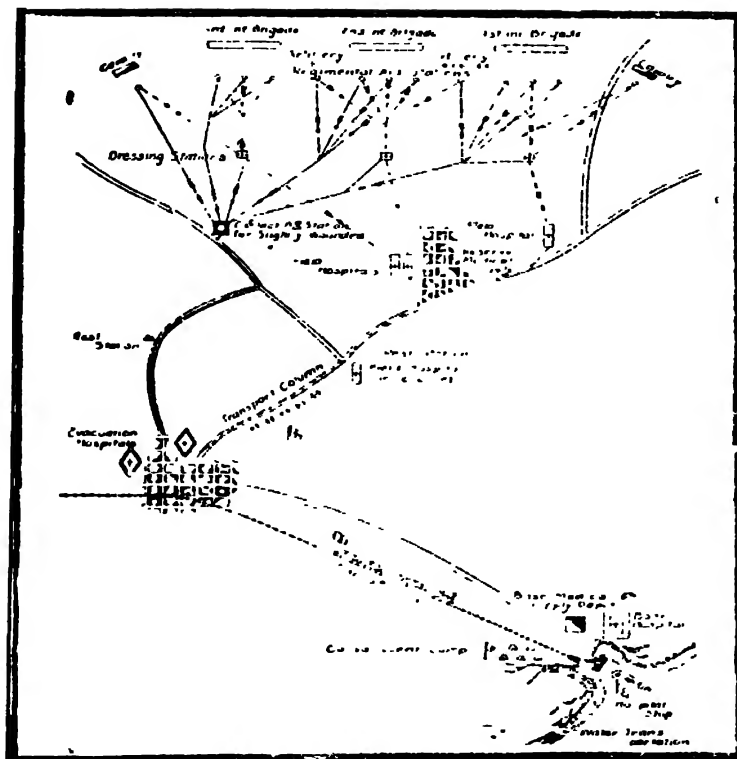
January 14. A *Gazette of India Extraordinary* issued to-night contains the report of the *Komiyata Miru* enquiry.

January 15. The earthquake in Italy has resulted in enormous loss of men and damage of buildings.



A WOUNDED INDIAN IN FRANCE.

A wounded Indian soldier being placed in a motor ambulance by members of the British Red Cross Brigade.



FROM FIGHTING LINE TO HOSPITAL.

This map shows lines for the return of the wounded from the field. It indicates how a division—15,000 to 20,000 men—would deal with its wounded in action.

Popular Science Siftings.

TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS

INDIA AND IMPERIAL FEDERATION.

Mr. S. Ambavanosvarar, writing in the November issue of the *Modern Review*, lays stress on the place that is legitimately due to India in the federalisation of the Empire, having come as it does, so very near realisation. He elaborates upon the marked revulsion from the ideas of the Cobdenite and the Little Englander Schools; and declares that Chamberlain with his Imperial 'Tariff' Reform and Imperial Federal Council has given a great impetus to the movement. Unity of interest, commercial and political, is the main bulwark of Federal Union; and though India cannot claim, like the self-governing Dominions, the same unity of race, language, religion and traditions with Britain, yet she might argue that her political and final relationship with England and her ever-growing cultural contact with Englishmen can form a sufficiently stable basis on which she might enter into the full privileges of membership within the Federated Empire. The writer rightly recognises that political consolidation between the educated Indians with Western aspirations and the large mass of illiterate Indians must be first effected before India can hope to rise to economic and intellectual equality with the other parts of the Empire. The adoption of a system of free and compulsory primary education might successfully and rapidly build up the chasm between the thoughts and ideals of these two classes of Indians. And when once this consolidation is achieved India can be able to pass rapidly through the various grades of representative government, while the *obiter dicta* of Western experience will enable her to avoid unnecessary friction and superfluous organisation. She will also make complete headway in economic organisation, whose growth is dependant on political organisation.

This aim of making India as highly advanced as a self-governing colony is the goal of the educated classes; and already they see the conspicuous place of India in any scheme of Imperial Federation that might be formulated. The stand-off attitude adopted by the colonies towards Indians up to now already shows signs of speedy modification, while German militarism has demonstrated the loyalty, the resources and the readiness to fight, of India's sons. These signs of increasing unity and good feeling can admit of no reasonable dispute, and the day is not far off when the Empire will be federated and India will fill a conspicuous place in it.

ANCIENT INDIAN HISTORY.

Mr. Sarada Chandra Mitra, writing to a recent number of *East and West* elaborates the value of clay-seals which have been recently dug up in North Behar near Basarh, in enabling us to fill up the numerous gaps in our knowledge of ancient Indian history. Spade-work enabled Dr. Marshall to pin down the illusive Kanishka to the second century A.D., while the excavations near Patna conducted by General Cunningham and Dr. Spooner have cleared a good deal of uncertainty and doubt in the history of the Mauryas. More recently, Dr. Bloch and Dr. Vogel have unearthed a vast number of inscribed clay-seals, which shed a flood of light on the political, religious, and artistic history of ancient India and at the same time afford material for the fascinating study of Indian gems. Many of these seals are official ones, which throw interesting data on the system of government in vogue during the Gupta period, while others are private ones. It is from Babylon that Indian merchants should have learnt the practice of writing on tablets of clay, and though it was never widely adopted for purposes of writing books or mercantile memoranda, it was used for seals on which pithy maxims from the Scriptures were sometimes added.

The researches of Dr. Vogel in this direction have proved the correctness of the identification of Basarh with the ancient Vaisali and further indicate that Vaisali was the seat of a royal viceroy of the ruling dynasty, whose capital was Pataliputra. Something has also come to light about the police system that prevailed in Vaisali and about the quinquennial inspection of the city by the Imperial Government. One very remarkable seal is supposed by Dr. Spooner to bear a definite picture of the famous Asoka Lion on the column at Bakhra; and two others in their legends and devices are curiously reminiscent of the departmental seals of the Government of India at the present day, and have a modern look about them, which is in curious contrast to the antiquity of their lettering. Some of the seals come very high in point of artistic merit and have spirited figures of animals and men. Others bear on them devices of Stupas; and on one of the oval ones there is the impression of a hemispherical Stupa with a square receptacle at its top surmounted by very long and fluttering bannerets, with a Buddhist railing round the base. These new finds thus add an immense amount of knowledge to that which has already been got by numismatic and epigraphic discoveries.

TURKEY AND EGYPT.

Writing in the December issue of the *Fortnightly Review*, A. P. Weigall, late Inspector-General of Antiquities to the Egyptian Government, briefly sketches the situation created in Egypt by the declaration of Turkish hostilities. He is firmly convinced that Turkey's main object was from the first the conquest of Egypt and that the opening of hostilities in the Black Sea was due to the inability of the Porte to make up her mind to enter the conflict, 'an inability which determined the Turkish war-party to encourage German officers on board Turkish battleships to force the Sultan's hand by committing acts of aggression against Russia.' Neither Turks nor Germans ever expected that the former's intervention would weaken the Russian battle-line which is so great a terror; their immediate object was to weaken the *British line* in North France and Belgium and to occupy the attention of large bodies of our troops in the East. The Turkish plan of campaign was first to capture the Suez Canal, thus cutting direct communication between England and India, then to take Cairo and Alexandria and thus to establish a base for the taking over of the Soudan, linking up ultimately with the German possessions in East Africa; afterwards to assert themselves in Arabia, to come to an agreement with the disaffected tribes of Yemen, and to strengthen their prestige in the holy cities; their final object was to use this strategic position in Egypt and this religious prestige to stir up trouble in Persia, Afghanistan, India, Tripoli and other Mussalman countries in which the Allies are interested.

On one point the English might be confident, *viz.*, that a successful Turkish invasion of Egypt at once endangers the position of the Italians in Tripoli and consequently Italian aid will be surely forthcoming if the British troops are in serious difficulties. The British position in Egypt is very delicate from a legal and international point of view. Either England has to annex Egypt by proclamation (the late Act had declared her a Protectorate), and make the country part of the British Empire; or else Egypt had to revolt from the nominal Ottoman sovereignty, declare war on its former overlord, and fight side by side with England, actually for a while as an independent country. The situation is more complicated by the fact that the Khedive was and still is a prisoner in Constantinople; while the immediate and direct annexation of the country may lead to a military revolution in favour of the continua-

tion of Turkish suzerainty. In this dilemma, which is contributed to, much by the anti-English prejudices of the *Effendi*, only a partial measure, *viz.*, the proclamation of Sir John Maxwell was adopted; and the whole of the Egyptian army was ordered to fight neither for nor against its overlord, the Sultan, while England fights to deliver Egypt from the last vestiges of Turkish domination. There is indeed not much love lost between the Sultan and his Egyptian vassals; but the religious aspect of the whole situation may make the Egyptians feel that a demonstration of the Sultan's power is a matter of good cheer to all Mussulmans. The British should try their best to make the inevitable fall of Turkey appear to the native mind less a menace to Islam in general, than a benefit to Egypt in particular.

THE IMPERIAL CONSCIENCE.

Mr. Jogendra Singh writes in the *East and West* a suggestive note on the probable effect of the war on the constitution and vitality of the British Empire. While every war shows in the clearest light that power only "comes to those who deserve it and deserts those who abuse the trust in the piping times of peace and is the supreme test which periodically weighs nations and assigns them their real places," the rally of India and the Colonies round the Mother State distinctly demonstrates that the British Empire and the ideals underlying it have not lost their force or their future potentiality. "The great war in which Indians, Englishmen and Colonials are fighting shoulder to shoulder will give birth to an Imperial Conscience, to inspire the future policy of the Empire, to show that it is held together with ties of love, and that the 'White Man's Burden' is also his strength. They will realise that ancient barriers of country and colour are of little account when men have to face forty centimetre guns and give their lives for a common cause." It is useless for the English to rely hereafter upon the fetish of government by prestige and upon the effect of the splendid isolation of the rulers due to a constant sense of superiority. Rule by prestige combined with the personal qualities of the rulers may succeed for a time, but it is bound to fail in the long run unless it wins the confidence of the ruled. The great war has come to re-establish the real meaning of things and to bring home to Englishmen the diverse problems of the Empire, its heavy responsibilities and its unity and glory, and will re-awaken the Imperial Conscience for the good of both the East and the West.

MUSIC AND ART IN SCHOOLS.

The Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University writing in the January issue of the *Indian Education* lays stress upon the tendency towards self-expression which now manifests itself in our system of education, especially elementary. Elementary instruction was till very recently factory-ridden; the elementary school of the factory era (19th century) borrowed from industry 'the punctuality, the sub-division of labour and the time-saving appliances which were characteristic of the factory-system but it under-rated the value of human influences in school-life, attached too much importance to administrative machinery and deadened the artistic interests of children and teachers alike.' The failure of this mechanical system has become latterly very prominent, and a change of method set in, first in America and then in Europe, the first object being to encourage greater variety and originality in methods of teaching in elementary and preparatory schools. Madame Montessori, Colonel Parker and Mr. Edmond Holmes became the protagonists of a new ideal of elementary education—'an ideal which finds a place for beauty, for imagination and for dramatic self-expression in daily practice.' Instruction ought to combine liberty of growth with the stringency of discipline and to practise a double loyalty—a loyalty both to discipline and to individual freedom. Differing according to their mental temperament and artistic feeling, teachers and pupils should sedulously cultivate (1) rhythmic movements of the body (dancing); (2) expression through the plastic arts, viz., modelling, drawing, painting, etc., and (3) vocal and instrumental music. All these have an educational importance, and particularly singing is one of the easiest arts to practise in a large school and with very little expenditure on apparatus. New methods of language-teaching have also been introduced and a larger reliance is being placed on the instinctive powers of the children and on the sentence instead of the inflected word as the unit of expression. In this connection care ought to be taken that the importance of grammar as an aid to language instruction should not be slurred over too much as it has been in the past. The British Board of Education have published in a pamphlet their view of this new phase of thought in education. . .

READING IN WAR-TIME.

Dr. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, writes a thoughtful article in the columns of an English Educational Journal. This war, he says, has made everyone less self-conscious and shy than in ordinary times and, therefore, freer to express himself more naturally and fully and with freer modulation of voice and tone. Men who in ordinary circumstances do not write poetry have now broken out into verse, and the deeper places of the heart and mind are now moved by the stress of strong emotion. Many memorable things have been written and spoken during the last few months, and first among them might be mentioned, the speeches of Mr. Asquith, Lord Kitchener's letter to the soldiers, Mr. Hilaire Belloc's narrative of the campaign and some of Mr. H. G. Wells' articles in the *Nation*.

The pre-occupation and anxiety which the war has created in all minds might be better borne if the mind is engaged in reading something which is remote from the associations of war and which should call for great concentration and focussing of the thoughts. Soldiers in the trenches have been known to relieve their minds by reading serious poetry and philosophy, and General Smuts who led the daring raid into Cape Colony during the Boer War found Kant's *Critique of Pure Reason* a great help. Many people have become more deeply interested in philosophy especially in ethics since the war began, perhaps due to the conflict of ideals raising fundamental questions of conduct and of duty. Again it is only now, that the greatest things, those which are truest to spiritual experience have the surest power of consolation and encouragement; and it is these that touch us more deeply and give us the greatest relief; and it is these alone that will heighten and steady our thoughts. But we remember after all, in the words of Lincoln's commemoration of those who had fallen along the escarpment of Gettysburg, that the 'brave men, living and dead, are commemorated far above our power to add or to detract; and that is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated to the unfinished work which they, who have fought, have thus far so nobly advanced and that from the honoured dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave their last full measure of devotion.'

SOUTH INDIAN PORTRAIT-SCULPTURE.

Mr. Orendhra Coomarr Gangooli writes to the January number of the *Modern Review* about the art of portrait-sculptures of lay personages which was largely developed in South India. The sculptor did not confine his work to the representation of gods and saints merely to the exclusion of laymen. The practice existed from a remote antiquity, probably several centuries before Christ and certainly from the time of the poet Basu who lived somewhere between the time of Alexander and the second century A.D. Contemplation on the portrait of the separated lover was very common as a means of beguiling the tedium of the time of separation. Hemadri in his *Dana Kaula* expressly recognises the propriety of associating the image of the donor with his gifts. At first however these portraits of the donors always figured in the stereotyped conventional worshipping posture with the two palms joined together in salutation, there being no scope for the indication of the individual character portrayed. The artist merely depicted his ideal of a devotee in conventional position, and it was only very long after that portraits came to display individual traits and distinguishing peculiarities in dress and attitude. "This identity of type—one set of features serving all requirements—probably preceded the advent of the portraitist proper, who in later times sought to introduce personal elements and individual characterisation in these figures of the devotee type. Indeed, we can go further and find the genesis of the portrait-idea in the symbolic figures which formerly used to be attached to the pedestals of the bronze images of the gods, which it was the custom of South Indian donors to present to the various temples. . . . The further development of the portrait-idea can be traced in the rude incised figures on the stone slabs recording inscriptions of gifts to temples . . . and from the custom of presenting lamps to the temples which the pious devotees thought of special merit."

The best-known examples of this class of sculptures are the groups representing Tirumala Naik and his three consorts at Madura, the series of statues of the Setupati Rajas of Rameswaram in Rameswaram, a group of Pallavas in the Mamallapuram bas-reliefs and the bronze statues of some Vijayanagar kings in Tirupati. Almost every temple abounds with the images of Saivite Saints and Vaishnavite Alvars which are all stereotyped and can hardly be distinguished from one another. There are also many beautiful examples of por-

traits in the Tinnevely and Travancore districts. The portrait statues of Ceylon, present, in spite of the influence of South Indian art on them, very distinct peculiarities. The colossal statue of Parakrama Bahu the Great at Polonnaruwa has 'an architectural or monumental quality that is most impressive and entirely appropriate to the scale of execution.' Northern India, however, has not yet disclosed evidence of any sustained activity in this branch of sculpture—with the exception possibly of the recently-discovered statue of Kanishka and the effigies of Samudra Gupta stamped on his coins.

WEEKLY PAY-DAYS IN INDIA.

The *Pioneer* advocated some time back that in order to avoid what it terms 'petty borrowing,' wages earned in India should be paid, as in Europe, weekly instead of monthly. The system that is now prevailing and that has obtained from time immemorial is to pay salaries by the month, irrespective of the status of the recipient. An anonymous writer suggests in a recent number of the *Asiatic Review* pointing out that it is this long interval between one pay-day and another that leads to the perniciousness of a lengthy credit and the evil of petty borrowing. The increasing numbers of working men, and those, who, of course incorrectly, are stigmatised and referred to as of the subordinate grade—it is these that will greatly benefit by the system of weekly payment. Nearly all of them are married and have families to support. Their cash transactions are ordinarily limited to those items for which credit cannot be got; and a large proportion of them are either in debt or live without saving, their sole aim being to exist from one pay-day to the next. The number of 'Court attachments' against the wages of the employees of any large company, or indeed against large numbers of Government subordinates, is a clear, if inadequate, indication of the indebtedness of the working classes in India. Weekly payments would stop long credits altogether, and money-lenders would hesitate to lend to the weekly-paid man, even if he still wished to borrow. The main idea of the proposal is not only to help the wage-earner, but also to hit the money-lender, the man who preys on the weakness of the poor and flourishes by usury. And, after all, even in the working out of this scheme, no great difficulty need be encountered; also the status of the employees may be the same and they may remain still monthly servants even if paid weekly.

RUSSIA'S MISSION.

Mr. H. M. Howsin, writing in the November number of the *Asiatic Review*, traces the characteristics and the shape of the great Slav nation (Russia) which has not yet emerged from its precocious childhood. The Russians of to-day are the result of a blend between the restless Tartar nomads of the steppes, the Poles, the Lithuanians, etc., of the west, and the Cossacks—half Slav, half Turk—from the south, with a little tincture of Circassian and Norse blood. The Russian choice of the Greek rather than the Roman Church preserved the natural temperamental isolation of the nation from the Roman politico-social development of Latin and Teutonic Europe—an isolation which even to-day has not vanished. The commercial system, with the village as the unit, is even to-day the natural expression of the social life of the Russian people and “implies a simplicity, kindness and unworldly detachment of outlook entirely foreign to the individualistic materialism of the west.” The village organisation is based on a profound democracy and rests on the feeling of full social and economic equality which is a fundamental expression of one aspect of the Russian genius. The soul of the nation is throbbing with a great upheaval—the result of ardent efforts towards self-realisation. The Russian genius, unlike the Teutonic one, is towards the complete expression of life itself, rather than in a consolidated output as apart from personal living, “to live fully, perfectly, carelessly, answerable to the demon within, scornful of the outside clamour for an output for public sale or fame.” The Russian knows instinctively that occasion is above law and human nature above custom; that harmony is greater than order and life than forms of living. His attitude towards life is not rationalistic but intuitive; in this it is in direct opposition to the German Teutonic, which uses reason to elaborate a de-humanized theory of existence, and patiently and persistently marches towards the perceived goal, ignoring all the subjective circumstances which arise to qualify and modify the scheme of action.

The Russians attribute much of their present misgovernment to the insidious influence and direct interference of German militarism and Teutonic mechanicalism. Their goal is to readjust their government to their national needs and characteristics and make it expressive of their own ideals.

THE MUSIC OF INDIA.

In the course of an article in the November number of the *Nineteenth Century and After*, Mrs. Haigh calls to prominence all the admirable features of the Indian art of music. She says that the difficulty of hearing typical music in India, except in a few favoured localities, is considerable; the dearth of Indian writings on the subject is so great as to discourage research; the Indian system of musical notation is crude and defective; and in popular drama, native melodies are so much contaminated with inferior popular airs as to be subordinate altogether. But still she urges music is the most highly cultivated art in the country, and agrees with Dr. A. K. Coomaraswamy, that it has remained *the most continuously vital and the most universally appreciated art of India*.

From very early times, music has been accorded the foremost place among the arts, whether in courtly or popular life; and has formed an essential part of religious observance and dramatic representations. It has got a greater hold upon the peoples of true Indian culture than in Europe; and as a factor in daily life it plays a vastly more important rôle. Western music is a highly specialised art; and it is less, “as a creative activity obeying certain artistic rules, than as a thesaurus of masterpieces to which individual men of genius have made their several contributions.” “The musical compositions of modern Europe, if we except the old folk-songs, are creations finished and complete. Every detail of form is unalterably fixed by its author, and the genius of the interpreter lies in getting so near to him in spirit as to be his faithful mouthpiece.” “In Indian music, even its classical compositions, the *Rags*, a part of sacred tradition, can clothe themselves continually in fresh forms and assume different guises. . . . The singer deals with the *Rag*, as his feeling or mood dictates, improvising with unfettered freedom of choice within the limits of its own laws and principles.” Thus the whole purpose and nature of Indian music is so much unlike our own methods, that it is impossible to judge it by standards of Western artistic excellence. Modern European music is founded on an *artificial bar-measure*; while in India, the “unit of musical composition is the *phrase*; a figure or motive is the shortest complete element—an element which can and normally does suggest an entire cognate idea, in movement, melody and words.” The *bar* is a fraction without any intel-

ligible meaning in itself. On the other hand the classical Indian music, though highly cultivated, was never specialised and combined melody, words and dance—the musical triad of ancient Greece. *Sangita* consists of three elements, viz., *Gita* (song); *Vadya* (accompaniment) and *Nritya* (dancing); and this natural association continues to this day.

One other important feature of Indian music is that its natural rhythmic measure stimulates the body to respond, and so to realise the sound in movement. "So strong is the sense of rhythm and its association with time in the Indian temperament, that the worker engaged in any labour requiring bodily movement with a concurrent action instinctively becomes vocal." To the Indian, music has also conjured up some vision of colour or design, and the modern development of colour-music shows that this is by no means an abnormal experience. The Indian art of music has much in common with that of ancient Greece, which is the parent of all Western music. Both were evolved upon very similar broad principles and stand in a comprehensible relation to each other.

PLATO AND DAYANANDA.

Professor Sudhakar, M.A., writing in the December number of the *Vedic Magazine*, elaborates certain exact coincidences between the views of Swami Dayananda, the modern apostle of India and those of Plato, the father of Greek idealism. What Plato had to think and do for his country in his own times was roughly the same with which Dayananda had to grapple in India at the present time. The works of Plato are cast in the form of imaginary dialogues for the propagation of his views on ethical and social, political and metaphysical subjects. Dayananda's masterpiece, viz., *Satyarth Prakash* is also in the form of questions and answers which is perhaps the best method for eliciting truth. Both Plato and Dayananda were impelled on by their passionate desire of vindicating Truth and eradicating the spirit of Sophism which found its chief pleasure in the destructive work of negating Truth. Both set their faces against mythology "which is the collective stupidity of the masses," and condemned its literal acceptance or its rationalisation. Plato forbade the teaching to children of the stories and fables which Homer and Hesiod told; while the Swami fought persistently against the acceptance of the Puranic theology.

It is when we come to the field of education, that we see the two minds so closely together and

at the same time perceive the differences in ideals separating them. Plato's educational ideal was narrowed by his extreme desire to subordinate individual interests in every respect to the interests of the State. Dayananda's ideal was much higher. "It included in itself the complete development of *self* not narrowly conceived as individual and social, but as spiritual and cosmopolitan. Hence the values of *life* were regarded as spiritual, and the principles of *life* demanded greater allegiance than the temporary fleeting regulations of States, which are merely means to the development of individual souls and not the end of their final satisfaction. Dayananda's conception of education included both *nature* and *nurture*, hence, a very extensive programme." Both, however, declared that education should be compulsory and that the State should look to it, strictly prohibited the co-education of boys and girls, enjoined strict celibacy during the period of education, insisted on princes and peasants reading together and on the equality of the privileges of men and women in education, and last of all declared that plain living and high thinking should be observed as the fundamental principles of the educational programme.

Dayananda's ideal of social organisation and his interpretation of the Vedic fourfold division of mankind are unique. According to him the system was based upon the universal principle of "Division of Labour," and his class distinctions only admit of differences in tastes and capacities, which individuals or groups of individuals only acquire through experience. The spirit of this principle, it was also the aim of Plato to introduce into the Greek society of his day, in order to ensure the best possible social organisation. In the eyes of both, unity of society could only be maintained by the diversity of occupations. Their metaphysical views were also very similar and centred in a belief in Universal Intelligence and in the pre-existence of the soul and in its eternity. Both believed in the purposive nature of the universe and held that the perfection of a man's experience consists in his realising his true harmony with God. Both also held that Truth is not man-made, but man-understood, and that man slowly finds the moral laws just as he gradually discovers the physical laws, and it may be said that man's study and man's knowledge is only an interpretation of the universal code—the "Veda" of Dayananda, and the "Ideas" of Plato.

THE DHAMMĀPADA.

Kenneth Saunders contributes a very instructive article on the *Dhammapada* and its message to India in the January number of the *Theosophist*. The message of Gauthama is still paramount in the East, and India is in special need of the inspiration of the Great Teacher. That we may the better understand whose is the spirit that breathes from the pithy sayings of the *Dhammapada*, the writer begins with a verse translation of a passage in the *Sutta Nipata* which tells how graciously and humorously He replied to a Brahmin who chid him with batten- ing upon the toil of other men. "I, O recluse, plough and sow and thereafter do I eat." Saith the Lord, "So shouldst thou also plough and sow in order to eat." On the Brahmin asking the Lord to show the plough and the field, the Buddha said :—

A farmer I, indeed !
True faith is my seed,
The rain that waters it is discipline.
Wisdom my yoke and plough,
(Dost take my meaning now ?)
The pole is modesty
And mind is the axle-tree
Alertness is my goad and ploughshare keen !
Guarded in act, in thought and speech,
With truth I weed the ground,
And in gentleness is found
The salvation I preach.
My ox is endeavour
And he beareth me ever
Where grief cometh never,
To Nirvana the goal I shall reach.
Such, O Brahmin, is my farming,
And it bears ambrosial crops :
Whoso follows in my footsteps
Straight for him all sorrow stops.

The recluse convinced by these words poured rice milk into a golden bowl and opened it to the Blessed One.

These kindly words may be studied in concise attractive form in the *Dhammapada*. These sayings, writes the author, are "still seasoned with salt" and still applicable to India.

To the men obsessed with the things of this world, He speaks words of solemn warning. One is the road reading to riches, another "is that leading to Nirvana." The Teacher advocated asceticism but he knew that in itself the hard, solitary life of the "religious" is of no value :

Not by shaven crown is a man made 'religious' who is intemperate and dishonest. How can he be 'religious' who is full of lust and greed ? He who puts off altogether great sins and small faults—by such true religion is a man known as 'religious.' (264-5.)

And to the Brahmin ascetic he says :—

Not matted hair nor heritage of birth
Can make a man a Brahmin—only worth
And truthfulness and purity.
What boots your sackcloth and your twisted hair ?
On outward things ye lavish care.
Ye who are rotting, rotting inwardly. (393-4.)

India has always had great warriors, and Gautama reminds her that at all times men need a "moral equivalent for war" : "Not by worrying living beings is a man great as a warrior, but by kindness and harmlessness" (270) ; and that we all of us can achieve a nobler conquest than that of the battlefield : "Greater is he who conquers himself than the hero of a thousand fields." (103.)

Above all in importance is the teaching that "from within are the issues of life" :—

Know this, O man : evil is the undisciplined mind !
See to it that greed and lawlessness bring not upon thee
long suffering. (248.)

For

All that we are by mind is wrought
Fathered and fashioned by our thought.

EUROPEAN CIVILISATION.

Mr. Uchimura, the well-known Japanese educationist, who makes no secret of his convictions on religious and political affairs, writes as follows in the English columns of a Japanese Journal, the *Yorodzu* :—

"What is the Western civilisation after all ? They say it is the Christian civilisation. But, is it ? Is it a civilisation based upon the Crucified One ? Certainly it is not. It is a civilisation based upon the Crucifying One, the Devil, 'a murderer from the beginning.'"

"War, war—war, upon the slightest pretext that is their cry and inborn propensity. To say that their civilisation is based upon the Gospel of Peace is the grossest falsehood. The present conflagration of Europe is the veriest evidence, written with hell-fire upon the face of the sky, that theirs is a sham civilisation, beautiful upon the surface, but, within, dead vacuity. Like thunder-storm in a summer afternoon, the two poles of human wrath come to crash to spend itself, to leave the sky clear for the better and more beautiful thing.

"Rejoice greatly, O daughter of Zion ; shout, O daughter of Jerusalem ; behold the King cometh unto thee ; he is just and having salvation ; lowly, and riding upon an ass ; and upon a colt, the foal of an ass . . . And He shall speak peace unto the (European) heathen ; and His dominion shall be from sea even to sea, and from the river even to the ends of the earth.

"I am confident that, after all, the good time, yes, the golden time, is coming."

GERMAN IDEALS AND IDEAS.

A recent issue of the *Athenæum* gives the place of honour to a learned article which discusses and criticises the most prominent books which expound the real aims of Pan-Germanism. Von Bernhardt's 'Germany and the next War,' Von Bulow's 'Imperial Germany,' Mr. Usher's 'Pan-Germanism' and Dr. Reich's 'Germany's Swelled Head'—these which have been hitherto regarded as mere meaningless diatribes on German qualities and English defects, now appear to be in truth statements of most definite facts and plans. Von Bernhardt's book is a proof of the most careful thought and clearest foresight; it foresaw the possibility that Italy would hold aloof, and gives close attention to ways and means of invading Germany. Bulow's work is far less truculent and venomous than Bernhardt's, and his hopes and plans were directed towards the consolidation of Germany under Prussian rule, and the construction of a fleet which should enable her to 'defend her dignity and interests against England at sea.' His ideal was that the Prussia of Moltke and Bismarck should prevail against and absorb the Germany of Goethe and Lessing, and he desired that the Prussian Parliament should be brought under monarchical control which is the chief safeguard of a military State. Prince von Bulow's book shows us that world-expansion and war are by now so deeply rooted in the instructive idealism of Germany as to overcome every obstacle actual or imagined. Professor Usher's 'Pan-Germanism' is a clear statement of German hopes and opinion, a careful survey of international conditions and possibilities. Germany's 'Swelled Head' of Dr. Reich is practically pan-Germanism; it reiterates the vaunts and hopes of the Teutons and represents the Kaiser as a highly informed ruler with a well-planned policy before him. But it shows that it has no knowledge of the mysterious psychology of the Englishman and shows that the Germans have learnt so much about England that they really know nothing. Dr. Emile Reich's book may be termed a dissertation reduced to popular pamphlet form. These show how deeply planned the German schemes of ambition are and how much the polite calm of Germany up to the outbreak of the war covered its inward activity and aggression.

INDIAN STUDENTS IN ENGLAND.

The *Indian Magazine* writes:—The London County Council received an application from the Government of Madras that certain Indian students sent to this country might be admitted as private students to the post-graduate department of the London Day Training College in Holborn. It was proposed that one or two students at a time should enter the College for a period of one year, after which they would be allocated to certain London Elementary Schools as supernumerary teachers and subsequently visit schools in company with Inspectors of the Board of Education. Students of Indian nationality have already been admitted to the Council's Training Colleges, and it was agreed that, subject to the regulations of the Board of Education and of the Council, Indian students sent by the Government of Madras should be admitted to the London Day Training College (*Holborn*) as private students on payment of the fee charged to students admitted from outside the London area. It was also agreed that a limited number of Indian students, on the completion of their training at the London Day Training College as post-graduate students, be employed for a period not exceeding one year as supernumerary teachers without pay in certain elementary schools. This is the first time that Indian students in this country are entering into the practical educational work under the London County Council, and it is hoped that the experience will be of use by being adapted to the needs of their future work in India.

THE SEQUELS OF THE WAR.

Mr. J. O. P. Bland, discussing the sequels of the war in the *Atlantic Monthly*, says:—

"Our class wars will not end, but they will surely be made less bitter, at least during the life of the present generation, by recollection of the days when dukes' sons and cooks' sons fought side by side in the trenches and together stormed the deadly breach. Conservatives will remember that, in the supreme hour of trial, it was the leaders of the Liberal Party who upheld the nation's honour.

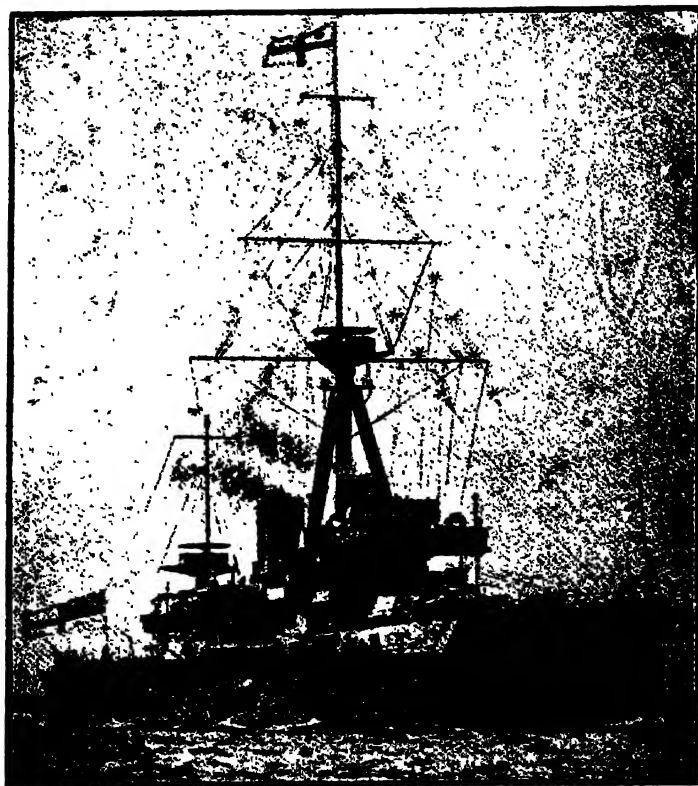
"The future of Liberalism, as of the Empire itself, lies now on the knees of the gods. May we not rightly hope that in the day of victory, English Liberalism may emerge triumphant from the fettering conditions of party, and, with a broader vision of wisdom and truth, lead the people in the way that they should go?"



VICTOR EMANUEL III.
King of Italy.



THE SIREN SONG.
A clay caricature made in Italy showing Russia, France, and Germany trying to induce Italy to abandon its neutrality.



H. M. S. DREADNOUGHT.

QUESTIONS OF IMPORTANCE

CONGRESS RESOLUTIONS.*

The following are the texts of the Resolutions passed by the 29th Indian National Congress at Madras:—

I. CONDOLENCE WITH THE VICEROY.

This Congress desires to express its heart-felt and respectful sympathy with H. E. Lord Hardinge in the bereavements he has sustained by the death of his wife and of his eldest son. All-India mourns with his Excellency in his great sorrow.

II. THE LATE MR. GANGA PRASAD VARMA.

This Congress desires to place on record its sense of the profound sorrow and irreparable loss the country has sustained by the untimely death of Babu Ganga Prasad Varma, who was a devoted worker in the cause of the Congress from its earliest days and whose memory will be cherished with grateful affection by his friends and colleagues and by his countrymen at large for his many distinguished services.

III. DIWAN BAHADUR AMBALAL SAKERLAL DESAI.

This Congress desires to express its sorrow at the death of Mr. Ambalal Sakeral Desai and of Babu Bishnu Pada Chatterjee of Bengal, who were devoted and distinguished workers in the Congress cause and who rendered to it valuable service.

IV. LOYALTY AND GRATITUDE TO THE KING.

This Congress desires to convey to his Majesty the King-Emperor and the people of England its profound devotion to the Throne, its unswerving allegiance to the British connection, and its firm resolve to stand by the Empire at all hazards and at all costs.

This Congress places on record the deep sense of gratitude and the enthusiasm which the Royal Message addressed to the princes and the people of India in the beginning of the war has evoked throughout the length and breadth of the country, and which strikingly illustrates his Majesty's

solicitude and sympathy for them and strengthens the bond which unites the princes and people of India to his Royal House and the person of his Gracious Majesty.

V. DISPATCH* OF THE INDIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

This Congress notes with gratitude and satisfaction the dispatch of the Indian Expeditionary Force to the theatre of war, and begs to offer to H.E. the Viceroy its most heartfelt thanks for affording to the people of India an opportunity of showing that, as equal subjects of his Majesty, they are prepared to fight shoulder to shoulder with the people of other parts of the Empire in defence of right and justice and the cause of the Empire.

VI. MILITARY CAREER FOR INDIANS.

Military Training.—This Congress urges on the Government the necessity, wisdom and justice of throwing open the higher offices in the Army to Indians, and of establishing in the country military schools and colleges, where they may be trained for a military career as officers of the Indian Army.

Volunteering.—In recognition of the equal rights of citizenship of the people of India with the rest of the Empire, and in view of their proved loyalty so unmistakably and spontaneously manifested, and the strongly expressed desire of all classes and grades to bear arms in the service of the Crown and of the Empire, this Congress urges upon the Government the necessity of reorganising and extending the present system of volunteering so as to enable people of this country without distinction of race or class to enlist themselves as citizen-soldiers of the Empire.

VII. THE ARMS ACT.

In view of the hardship entailed by the Arms Act (XI of 1878) as at present administered, and the unmerited slur which it casts upon the people of this country, this Congress is of opinion that the said Act and the Rules made thereunder should be so modified that all restrictions as to the possession and bearing of arms shall apply equally to all persons residing in or visiting India;

* The Resolution relating to Indians in South Africa appears in page 79 under the section entitled Indians Outside India. *Ed. I. R.*

that all licences issued under the Rules shall be granted once for all, shall operate within the provincial jurisdiction within which they are issued, shall be revocable only on proof of misuse, and shall not require yearly, or half-yearly renewals.

VIII. INDIA AND THE DOMINIONS.

This Congress begs to convey to H. E. the Viceroy the profound gratitude of the people of India for the sympathetic manner in which he has handled the questions connected with the emigration of Indians abroad. And while welcoming his Excellency's suggestions of reciprocity as the underlying basis of negotiations with the colonies, this Congress desires to record its conviction that any policy of reciprocity which can be acceptable to the people of India must proceed on the basis that the Government of India should possess and exercise the same power of dealing with the colonies as they have in regard to India.

IX. GOVERNMENT AND INDUSTRIES.

In view of the present exceptional circumstances and in order to promote the material prosperity of the country, this Congress urges that immediate measures be taken by Government to organise and develop Indian industries.

X. THE STATUS OF INDIANS.

That in view of the profound and assured loyalty of the people of India, as manifested in the present crisis, this Congress appeals to the Government to deepen and perpetuate it, and make it an enduring and valuable asset of the Empire, by removing all invidious distinctions here and abroad between his Majesty's Indian and other subjects, by redeeming the pledge of provincial autonomy contained in the Despatch of the 25th August, 1911, and by taking similar measures as may be necessary for the recognition of India as a component part of a Federated Empire in the full and free enjoyment of all the rights belonging to that status.

XI. INDIA COUNCIL REFORM.

This Congress records its opinion that the Council of the Secretary of State for India should be abolished, and makes the following suggestions for the amendment of its constitution:—(a) That the salary of the Secretary of State for India should be placed on the English estimates. (b) That with a view to the efficiency and independence of the Council, it is expedient that it should be partly nominated and partly elected. (c) That the total number of members of the Council should be not more than nine. (d) That

the elected portion of the Council should consist of not less than one-third of the total number of members, who shall be non-official Indians chosen by a constituency consisting of the elected members of the Imperial and provincial legislative councils. (e) That the election of Indians to the Council should be direct and not out of a panel of elected members as proposed in Lord Crewe's Bill. (f) That not less than one half of the nominated members of the Council should consist of public men unconnected with Indian administration. (g) That the remaining portion of the nominated members of the Council should consist of officials who have served in India for not less than ten years and have not been away from India for more than two years. (h) That no distinction whatever with regard to salary or allowances be made between the Indian members and their colleagues in the Council. (i) That the character of the Council should be purely advisory as heretofore, and that no change in the methods and procedure should be made which may convert, or tend to convert, it in any manner whatsoever into an administrative body. This Congress regrets the summary rejection of the Council of India Bill of 1914.

XII. INDENTURED LABOUR.

Owing to the scarcity of labour in India, and the grave consequences resulting from the system of indentured labour, which reduces the labourers, during the period of their indenture, practically to the position of slaves, this Congress strongly urges the total prohibition of recruitment of labour under indenture, either for work in India or elsewhere.

XIII. JUDICIAL AND EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS.

This Congress, concurring with the previous Congresses, urges the early separation of judicial from executive functions in the best interests of the Empire, and prays that any scheme of separation that may be undertaken, to be really effective, must place all judiciary solely under the control of the highest court in every province.

XIV. SWADESHI.

This Congress accords its most cordial support to the Swadeshi movement, and calls upon the people of India to labour for its success by making earnest and sustained efforts to promote the growth of indigenous industries, by giving preference wherever practicable, to Indian products over imported commodities, even at a sacrifice.

XV. THE PRESS ACT.

This Congress reiterates its protest against the continuation of the Indian Press Act on the Statute Book, and urges that the same be repealed, specially in view of the decision of the Calcutta High Court, which declares that the safeguards provided by the Act are illusory and incapable of being enforced.

XVI. LAND SETTLEMENT.

This Congress is strongly of opinion that a reasonable and definite limitation to the demand of the State on land and the introduction of a permanent settlement directly between Government and landholders in ryotwari areas or a settlement for a period of not less than 60 years in those provinces where shorter periodical settlements on revision prevail will substantially help in ameliorating the present unsatisfactory condition of the agricultural population.

XVII. SEPARATE ELECTORATES.

This Congress, while deprecating the creation of separate electorates in the Imperial and Provincial Legislative Councils, urges on the Government that the said system should not in any case be extended to the local bodies as it will prove injurious to the development of national unity and the fostering of the national ideal.

XVIII. THE INDIAN TROOPS.

This Congress rejoices to place on record its deep sense of gratification and pride at the heroic conduct of the Indian troops, whose deeds of valour and conspicuous humanity and chivalry in the great war are winning the respect of civilised mankind for the mother country, and resolves to send a message of hearty and affectionate greetings to them and their comrades in arms, with fervent prayers for their well-being and success. The President be requested to cable the above resolution to the Indian troops through the proper channels.

XIX. LORD HARDINGE'S TERM OF OFFICE.

This Congress begs to place on record its high appreciation of the services rendered to India by H. E. the Viceroy, and expresses the hope that his tenure of office may be extended for such time as, after the cessation of the war, may be necessary for a proper settlement of the great and far-reaching issues affecting the future position of India as a component and equal part of the Empire.

XX. AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION.

The following two amendments suggested for the consideration of the subjects committee of this Congress be referred by the General Secretaries of the Congress to a committee, consisting

of three members to be nominated by each provincial Congress Committee, with the General Secretaries of Committees as *ex-officio* members, the said Committee to meet at such time and place as may be fixed by them in consultation with the Secretaries of the Provincial Congress Committees and to report to the All-India Congress Committee in regard to the said amendments for such action, if any, as the All-India Congress Committee may deem fit to suggest to the next Congress.

The said two amendments are:—(i) At the end of Article XX of the Constitution of the Indian National Congress organisation now in force, add the following words:—‘If such a meeting be not called, it shall be called for the election of delegates, within one month of the Congress, in any town or district, on the requisition of not less than 20 householders over 21 years of age to the Provincial or District Congress Committee in which the town of the requisitionists is situate.’

(2) In Article XX of the Constitution of the Indian National Congress organisation now in force make the following alterations:—(a) at the end of clause (4) delete the word ‘and’; (b) at the end of clause (5) for the fullstop, substitute a comma; (c) add the following words; ‘and public meetings convened under the auspices of any Association which has as one of its objects the attainment of self-government by India on Colonial lines within the British Empire by constitutional means.’

XXI. THE BRITISH CONGRESS COMMITTEE.

This Congress records its sense of high appreciation of the services of Sir William Wedderburn and other members of the British Committee and resolves that the organisation of the British Committee and the *India* should be maintained.

XXII. SECRETARIES.

The Hon. Nawab Syed Mahomed and Mr. N. Subba Rao be appointed General Secretaries for next year.

XXIII. THANKS TO THE CONGRESS DEPUTATION.

This Congress acknowledges with deep gratitude the services rendered at great personal sacrifice by the deputation which went to England last summer on behalf of the Congress to place before the Secretary of State for India the views of the Congress on the India Council Bill of 1914 and other important questions.

XXIV. THE NEXT CONGRESS.

The thirtieth Indian National Congress be held in Bombay in the Christmas of 1915.

UTTERANCES OF THE DAY

NOTABLE PRONOUNCEMENTS ON THE WAR.

THE HON. MR. P. S. SIVASWAMI, IYER C.I.E.*

No part of the world is so distant as not to feel the shocks of the earthquake which is convulsing Europe. Calamitous as the conflict has been, it has not been without its redeeming features. It has helped to cement the solidarity between all parts of the British Empire and call forth a universal outburst of loyalty from all the many races, creeds and classes that owe allegiance to the British Crown. The noble and whole-hearted devotion with which India has rallied round the British flag has evoked the admiration of the world and received the most generous acknowledgment from all parties. There is no one among you, or for the matter of that in India, to whom the war will not be full of lessons of the highest value with its demonstration of the power and resources of the empire, with its thrilling exploits of valour and self-sacrifice, with the unbounded devotion to duty exemplified alike in the life of the illustrious General, who, with his weight of eighty-two years, could not resist the call of the trumpet and rushed to meet the brave Indian army he had loved and led, and whose loss the empire mourns, and in the lives of the hundreds of thousands of young men who are fighting in a foreign land for the cause of freedom and righteousness against an aggressive militarism which, at the altar of morbid nationalism, has sacrificed the instincts of chivalry, culture and even humanity, and has spared neither the sex, nor learning. Upon you, as men of light and leading, lies the duty of keeping the fire of loyalty constantly burning, of seeing that no sudden gust of credulous panic or wayward breeze of misrepresentation blows on it, of obliterating the differences that divide the people into camps of conflicting interests, and of seeing that the union of minds and hearts that a common danger has wrought does not wane in the hour of peace. The war is equally pregnant with lessons to the critics of the educated classes. Would this wondrous manifestation of deep and genuine loyalty have been possible but for the influence of education? The educated classes of India are not so convinced of their perfection as to resent

honest and sympathetic criticism, however severe of their faults. But the critic who heaps contempt on the flower of the intelligence of the people, who denies the right of the educated Indian to reflect or represent the views of his countrymen and who seeks to undermine his influence with them, is no true friend of British rule. Nor is this outpouring of loyalty without lessons to the reflecting historian and statesman. It is a demonstration of the British genius for administering foreign countries and of the Teutonic ineptitude for the government of dependencies. The seeds of loyalty are sown not by the autocrat with his mailed fist or by the soldier with his fixed bayonet, but by the statesman who identifies himself with the people, makes their welfare and advancement his supreme aim and object and secures for them justice, individual liberty and all the manifold blessings of a wise, sympathetic and progressive administration.

DEWAN BAHADUR GOVINDARAGHAVIER.*

India has recognised that under British Government individual and popular rights are secured. War has unfolded the virtues of the east to the west and the virtues of the west to the east. The Britisher has shown great solicitude to the Indian soldiers. There is unity of interest in the heart of the Britisher and the Indian. The ideal of self-government can be realised only under British rule. Occasion has arisen when the educated Indian can be trusted by the Government and will not be looked upon as a seditionist. The educated Indian has come out of the ordeal with flying colours. The preponderance of opinion with respect to the permanence of British rule in India is not a little due to the part played by educated Indians. The manifestations of loyalty are not actuated by any selfishness on the part of Indians. They are voicing forth the sentiments of unalterable and unfaltering loyalty of the teeming millions of India. The Indians are prepared to take their place in defending the honour of the British Empire which is fighting in the interest of liberty, of humanity, and of scraps of paper and for redeeming its pledges, an empire which has implanted an abiding love in the hearts of the Indians."

At the Madras University Convocation, 1914.

* At the Madras Congress, December, 1914.

HON. SURENDRANATH BANERJEE.*

"We here, in Congress assembled echo that national sentiment and impart to it the wide power and the solidarity of the national voice (cheers). We are loyal, intensely loyal, loyal by instinct, loyal by tradition and loyal by immemorial usage. It is a part of Indian nature, a part and parcel of the beliefs and traditions which we have inherited with our blood. In the days of Muhamadan greatness, when Akbar ruled at Agra, when the Muhamadans ruled from one part of India to the other, the Hindus sang that the Lord of Delhi was the Lord of the Universe; so do we here to-day, as the descendants of our revered ancestors, we echo in this national gathering the deep-seated sentiment of loyalty which vibrates through our hearts and which forms a part and parcel of our very being. We are loyal, we are patriotic; we are loyal because we feel that with the stability and the undoubted permanence of British rule are bound up the prospects of India's advancement (cheers). Your Excellency, we are loyal because we feel that under the aegis of British rule we are bound in the evolution of our destiny, to enter that confederacy of Free States rejoicing in the indissoluble connection with England and glorying in the possessions of our free institutions. That is the feeling which lies at the bottom of that great movement which is marked throughout the length and breadth of India. Your Excellency, there are times and occasions when it is necessary that we should avow our feeling of loyalty. Nobody has ever questioned it. The Germans have manufactured their own ideas about us, but they have not had the slightest idea of the deep under-currents that move through the inner strata of our system. I say there are times and occasions when it is necessary that we should make an announcement of our loyalty and such a time has now arrived. In the name of the Congress, standing upon this platform, speaking on behalf of United India of Hindus and Mahomedans and all classes, races and creeds, we desire to proclaim to the world and tell the enemies of England and all else whom it may concern that behind the serried ranks of one of the finest armies in the world there are multitudinous races, creeds and people in the world banded as one man and resolved to die in the defence of that great Empire (cheers) to which we are all proud to belong and which is the symbol of human freedom, justice and civilization

wherever floats its flag. Your Excellency, we say in this resolution that we are resolved to stand by the Empire at all hazards and at all costs in this time of crises. Is it a mere ephemeral sentiment? Observe what is taking place in the seat of war in France, amidst the arid waste of Arabia and the eastern coast of Africa. There the manhood of India is shedding its best-blood in the defence of the Empire. Let me say this that if this unfortunate war should be prolonged and if England should demand our aid in men and money, the last pie that we have, the last drop of blood that runs through our veins (cheers) will be consecrated to the service of the Empire, to the glory of that great civilization which that Empire represents. We fight against vandalism; we are fighting against barbarism, we are fighting in the cause of justice in the defence of international obligations and the rights of minor nationalities. India, Aryan India, possessed of the noblest ethical and moral traditions, will always draw her sword in the defence of the cause of right and justice. Therefore, because the cause is just, because we are so loyal and because with our loyalty are bound up the best hopes and prospects of India, I desire to place with a confidence this resolution before you and I am sure you will accept it with acclamation." (cheers.)

THE RT. HON. SYED AMEER ALI.*

This aid was given when France and England were struggling for predominance and in the opinion of educated Indians it was a wise dispensation of Providence that gave the keys of power into the hands of Great Britain. Ever since then Indian troops had fought for the British Raj in many lands, and to-day the enthusiastic response of India to the call westward had revealed to a great many people something of the vastness of the reserves of power there were for England in India. The fighting races of India were full of loyalty and the utilization of their services was promoting the devotion which every Indian felt for the Throne. This devotion was founded on the justice of British rule and the principles of equality which constituted its greatest glory. By those principles Great Britain would maintain her dominion in India for a very long time indeed, and if separation ultimately came, it would be by means of mutual compromise and mutual consideration. But for many years to come the bond between England and India could not be severed in any shape without disaster."

* In moving the Loyalty resolution in the last Congress at Madras, December, 1914, in the presence of H. E. Lord Pentland.

* From a speech in London, 16th December 1914.

LORD HALDANE.*

"We must win if we only have the qualities, which I believe we have, of spirit, courage, resolution, and dogged determination. Germany may be admirably prepared, but preparation wears off against people who have the resources that we have. We may take the position from the point of view of population. Germany has a population of some 65 millions and Austria about 50 millions, 115 millions in all. But we have 44 millions, France 38 millions, and Russia over 170 millions. Therefore we have 250 millions in population against 115. Then as to armies. We will put the German army, say, at six millions. But Russia can mobilise six million men and more. Say Austria can mobilise two million men, we and France can mobilise between three and four million men between us. Even in troops there is a marked superiority in our numbers. Then there is the splendid fighting of Belgium. With these numbers and our ultimate resources, if we only keep our courage and resolution, keep our heads and our nerves, we shall do very well. Our great power is double that of the German Empire, and in resources the Allies have double the wealth and reserves to draw upon."

COUNT OKUMA. †

"It will be our one ambition at this time," to show the West that it is slow to believe, that we can work harmoniously with great Occidental powers to support and protect the highest ideals of civilisation, even to the extent of dying for them.

"Not only in the Far East, but anywhere else that may be necessary, Japan is ready to lay down her life for the principles that the foremost nations will die for. It is to be in line with these nations that she is at this time opposing and fighting what she believes to be opposed to these principles.

"She entered the Alliance with Great Britain to stand for and die for what Anglo-Saxons are everywhere ready to defend even unto death. It is Japan's aim and ambition to participate in all world-movements toward noble diplomacy, international relations and the principle of equal opportunity and peace, and to prevent by the proper means the outbreak or continuance of bloodshed between nations.

"Japan's relation to the present conflict is as

a defender of the things that make for higher civilisation and a more permanent peace.

"As one who has been a life-long friend of peace, I profoundly deplore the unwelcome fact that mankind somehow seems unable as yet to avoid war,' continued the Count 'But war, it seems to me, is always due to an unevenness of advancement in the progress of civilisation. I have often said that civilisation, like water, must find its level; and where its force is obstructed there will be violence and bloodshed. War is a result of the pressure offered in resistance to the growth of civilisation. Anything that tends to destroy a balance of power among nations will lead to disturbance.'

"Japan must maintain the peace of the Far East at all costs; and as Germany has begun to capture and interfere with shipping in these waters, our duty is plain. Such is the meaning of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance: it was concluded for just such an emergency as this."

LORD BRYCE.*

"King Edward had been charged with having sought to isolate Germany. It was a baseless charge; he had no ill-will to that or any other foreign nation. He had a genuine love of peace—part of his own friendliness. What he did to create friendliness between ourselves and France was done out of the desire for peace, as well as of goodwill to her, and out of the sense that such goodwill ought to exist between two peoples living close to one another. He was fond of the French nation, whose mind and manners naturally appealed to him, and we might all rejoice at the share he took in building up a perfect and cordial understanding with them which we prized so highly. At this moment, the most solemn that Britain had known since the sway of Bonaparte in Europe, what were the two things that gave us confidence? One was the conviction that the cause was righteous, the other was the support of our brothers in the great self-governing Dominions, all feeling that our cause is their cause, and that the welfare of humanity involved in its success. With these and the moral support of many a neutral nation, and especially of that of the kindred people of America, they trusted to achieve success."

* At Newcastle-on-Tyne, October 12th, 1914.

† The Premier of Japan in the *Japan Magazine*.

* At Aberdeen, October 31st, 1914.

INDIANS OUTSIDE INDIA

THE SOUTH AFRICAN INDIAN QUESTION.

As might be expected the Madras Congress dealt with the Indian problem in South Africa in a spirit and manner befitting the occasion and the dignity of the great gathering. The South African problem, since the Congress met last at Karachi has enormously changed in magnitude as in character. The spirit of the settlement is one of unity and fairplay and though the last word on the Indian problem has not as yet been said yet the spirit on either side is one of great promise. Nor is this the occasion to give vent to any cavil or criticism against any wrongs still unredressed and the Congress wisely confined itself to a Resolution of thanksgiving which was gracefully accepted with acclamation by the whole assembly.

The Resolution ran as follows :—

"This Congress begs to offer to H. E. the Viceroy its respectful thanks for the noble and courageous stand made by him in the cause of our people in South Africa. And, while expressing its grateful appreciation of the efforts of the Government of India in obtaining relief in respect of some of the most pressing grievances of our Indian fellow-subjects and of the firm advocacy in the cause of Indians of Sir Benjamin Robertson, this Congress begs to place on record that no settlement can be wholly satisfactory or be deemed final which does not secure equality of treatment between his Majesty's Indian and other subjects in South Africa, and respectfully urges on the Government of India that steps may be taken as early as circumstances will permit to bring about such equality of treatment. And this Congress places on record its warm appreciation of and admiration for the heroic endeavours of Mr. Gandhi and his followers, and their unparalleled sacrifice in their struggle for the maintenance of the self-respect of India and the redress of Indian grievances. And this Congress further expresses its gratitude to Messrs. Polak and Kallenbach for their voluntary sacrifice and suffering in the cause of India, and the Rev. C. F. Andrews for his help under circumstances of great difficulty. And lastly this Congress records its appreciation of the invaluable services of the Hon. Mr. Gokhale throughout the struggle in bringing about the present settlement."

Mr. G. A. Natesan who moved the Resolution paid a deserved tribute to the services of all the

persons mentioned in the Resolution, the mention of each name being followed by loud and prolonged cheering. He also referred to the "noble stand which Lord Ampthill made from the beginning" and asked the Congress to thank his Lordship "for the unflinching manner in which he advocated our cause." After referring to the services of men like Mr. Gokhale and Mr. Gandhi, Mr. Natesan pointed out "what India is really capable of has been shown by the South African struggle."

It must not, however, be presumed that the people of India have been completely won over by the settlement. As Mr. Natesan said :—"The process of strangulation has been brought to a close, still we cannot consider that this question has been satisfactorily solved. The question of the equality of status between the Indians and other British subjects in South Africa has yet to be solved. As the Congress meets under exceptional circumstances" he went on to say, "I refrain from making any observations which would render our position and of those concerned, difficult and complicated. After the war is over, if the pledges and promises made by British statesmen are fulfilled, it is then only that the question will have been satisfactorily and honestly settled."

In fact the sentiments expressed in the last sentence were the burden of all the speakers and the temper of the gathering showed that the Congress was one with them. Babu Sachendra Prasad Basu seconded the Resolution ; and Mr. Ramakantham Malaviya who rose to support the Resolution gave a picture of the still unredressed grievances. He pointed out :—

The grievances of our countrymen in South Africa remained still without redress in spite of the noble work and patient struggle of many patriotic men there. The Indians were not allowed to travel in the same train in which the Colonists and Europeans travelled. The Indians were not allowed to walk through the same path through which the Europeans passed. They were not allowed to purchase land in their names. Schools closed their gates against them. In view of those difficulties no settlement which did not get them equal treatment with Europeans would be considered final.

The Resolution was then unanimously carried.

INDIA AND THE DOMINIONS.

One of the important Resolutions passed by the recent Madras Congress was that touching the reciprocity of rights between the Colonies and India. Mrs. Annie Besant who made an eloquent speech on the subject moved :—

"This Congress begs to convey to His Excellency the Viceroy the profound gratitude of the people of India for the sympathetic manner in which he has handled the question connected with the emigration of Indians abroad. And while welcoming His Excellency's suggestion of reciprocity as the underlying basis of negotiations with the Colonies, this Congress desires to record its conviction that any policy of reciprocity to be effective and acceptable to the people of India must proceed on the basis that the Government of India should possess and exercise the same power of dealing with the Colonies as they possess in regard to India."

In moving the Resolution to the acceptance of the Congress she pointed out that "justice is the idea which really lies behind the idea of reciprocity." She then referred to the changed feeling towards India since the war. But she held that "India claims the right as a nation to the justice among the people. India asked for this before the war, India asks for it during the war, and will ask for it after the war, but not as a reward, but as a right."

"What India wants is absolute equality of right with any one of the self-governing colonies. If Canada says that Indians can only go direct from India to Canada where there is no direct line of steamer from India to America, India should say that no Canadian shall come to India unless he comes to India along a direct line of steamer from Canada. Similarly with regard to the civil service in India of Colonists. When an Indian goes to Australia they give him modern Greek which he cannot at all know. If a white emigrant goes there, they give him French or German which he knows. If an Australian comes to India, he must be made to translate Bengali, Tamil, Telugu or Malayalam. What India wants is equality on every point insisted by the self-governing colonies. Indians are now invited to colonise Queensland (a tropical climate) which cannot be cultivated by white men. If all the facilities given to white-men for colonisation are given to Indians, if Indians are asked to colonise Queensland under favourable conditions and without derogation to their rights as citizens of the Empire, Indians might colonise Australia. It is true that Australians may not come here as labourers and that Indians might want to go to Australia as labourers. So the best way of retaliation in the case of Australia is to exclude every kind of

imports from that country, if they exclude our people. The imports from Australia to Madras annually amount to more than 13 lakhs of rupees. If that is done a moral effect will be created which nothing else can do. Some sort of prohibitory duty should be inflicted as a moral protest against wrongs inflicted upon Indians in the colonies."

She then referred to the indenture system and asked the Congress to remember that India is growing conscious of her dignity. "Indians," she said in conclusion "are showing themselves as men in Europe and they want to be given the freedom of men in India."

The Hon. Mr. Kesava Pillai in seconding the Resolution said that he was afraid that reciprocity could not be brought into the field of practical politics so long as Indians were treated as an inferior race in their own country.

In supporting the Resolution Mr. Hridayanath Kunzru of Allahabad said :

"that the treatment given to Indians in Canada was the worst. The Indians were not allowed to bring their families into Canada. The Chinese and the Japanese had not so many disabilities as the Indians to suffer under. The Indians should be allowed to bring their families into Canada and they should be given the same rights and privileges as the white men in the Colonies. The Colonists coming into India should be subjected to the restrictions in India which the Indians suffer under in the colonies."

The Resolution was then put to vote and passed.

RECRUITMENT UNDER INDENTURE.

The Madras Congress passed the following Resolution prohibiting the recruitment of labour under indenture:—

"Owing to the scarcity of labour in India, and the grave consequences resulting from the system of indentured labour, which reduces the labourers, during the period of their indenture, practically to the position of slaves, this Congress strongly urges the total prohibition of recruitment of labour under indenture, either for work in India or elsewhere."

In moving the Resolution Mr. F. G. Natesan said that the system of indentured labour must disappear in the case of Indians along with other disabilities they were labouring under; he appealed to the Mirasdars and landed classes of India to treat the depressed classes humanely which if done, would naturally check emigration.

FEUDATORY INDIA.

NEW FACTORIES IN NATIVE STATES.

It is understood that, in consequence of certain trade difficulties caused by the war, two of the lac producing States of Central India, Nagod and Maihar have decided to open a factory for their forest tribes who are feeling the temporary cessation of the lac and hide trade. This factory will form a collecting and distributing centre for the jungle produce of these States. The States have engaged the services of a Scientific European Manager until such time as the Durbars consider they are able to undertake the sole management through their own officials. The organisation will deal with lac, hides, etc., and is now in a position to consider wholesale business. The manager will deal direct with consumers who may formerly have had to purchase through Hamburg and Bremen. The factory situated at Maihar on the main line of the East Indian Railway is centrally situated for Calcutta and Bombay in the heart of the chief lac producing countries of India. The management will comprise the Dewans and other notables of the States and has the guarantee of the Durbars and the recognition of the Local Government. The Manager of the Factory invites correspondence from those who may require the products referred to.

CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN MYSORE.

The past year has witnessed remarkable progress in the co-operative movement in Mysore; and at the close of the year 1913-14, there were 530 societies, against 343 the year before. The number of members too increased, correspondingly, from 24,538 to 40,479. The societies were mainly self-supporting, the assistance from the Government amounting to a trifle of Rs. 3,267, against a share capital of no less than 117 lakhs. The bulk of the societies in Mysore are agricultural; but even the non-agricultural ones seem to have had a very good year. Specially noteworthy is the position of Weavers' Societies, of which there are 13 in Mysore with 680 members. The societies supply the yarn to the members and sell the goods produced; and though no complete figures are available, yet the rapidity with which its total out-turn has increased shows that the societies are at least popular, and working on at full swing.

MYSORE INDUSTRIES.

His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore, who is touring in his State, replying to an address from the people of Davangere, an industrial centre, said:—"You say that the war has affected the business of producers and exporters of cotton and oil seeds. Distress of this kind is inevitable. The subject will receive my sympathetic consideration. Whatever the effect of the war on your trade, I would ask you to remember the ties of gratitude and friendship which bind us to the British Government and to submit cheerfully to some sacrifice in support of the righteous cause for which Great Britain and her Allies have taken up arms."

THE NIZAM'S RAILWAY.

The *Indiaman* of the 27th Ultimo makes a reference to the long standing dispute between the State and the guarantee-holders of the Railway, and says that the difficulty has been "got round by the arrangement that the Nizam's Government shall supply the capital required for the new lines and the amount contemplated is no less than five crores of rupees." Thus as regards new lines there is no longer the millstone of a guarantee round the neck of the Hyderabad taxpayers and it now rests wholly with the State to develop a railway policy on its own patriotic lines, albeit it has still to secure some measure of freedom in the working and management of branch and feeder lines. The new railway loan is to be floated in British India as well as in Hyderabad itself; and when it is floated we are sure it will be eagerly subscribed for. The *Indiaman* which appears to write with a knowledge of facts says that the loan is not to be floated until normal conditions are restored and that meanwhile new construction is to be taken in hand as far as revenue will permit. The finances of Hyderabad are in a prosperous condition to admit of a liberal railway policy such as has commended itself to Baroda and Mysore.

NEW MAHARAJA OF SIKKIM.

The new Maharaja of Sikkim will be Trashi Wangyel, younger brother of the late Maharaja. He is about twenty-one years of age. Formal sanction to his succession has been given by the Government of India.

THE GWALIOR STATE.

The specially illustrated number of the *Jago Pratap* in commemoration of the anniversary of the birthday of His Highness the Maharaja Madhava Rao Scindia of Gwalior which fell on the 23rd October, and under whose illustrious rule the State has progressed in a remarkable manner has the following :—

“ To the future historian of Gwalior it will be a tantalising task to review the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Madhava Rao Scindia. His Highness has effected reforms in every branch of administration to do justice to which will require volumes, but whatever the historian shall write, the Irrigation Policy of His Highness will find a prominent place in the annals of Gwalior. His Highness' glorious reign will be justified by thousand and one benefits which he has conferred and will for many and many years to come confer on his loyal subjects, but in the words of Mr. Denkin, the Irrigation Policy of His Highness alone will suffice to justify it to posterity.

“ PUDUKOTTA.

We learn from the Administration Report of Pudukotta for last year that the financial condition of the State is excellent. Receipts during the year were above the estimates and expenditure was below them, and the State's balance has risen from 28 lakhs of rupees to 30½ lakhs. Much good work was done in the State during the year. The forests were carefully looked after, and something was done in the way of restoration. In education, the Raja's College did good work, and there was general progress.

GAEKWAR ON SOCIAL REFORM.

Speaking at a dinner which he gave to the members of the Officers' Club at Baroda on January 8, His Highness the Maharaja Sahib mentioned the difficulties he had to encounter in social reform. Taking first the question of inter-dining, he said that the obstacles were now few. The Deccani would not sit at the same table with the Maharatta nor the Chitpavan with the Gujarathi. Even among broad divisions of Maharattas and Gujarathis there were so many compartments that at one time he thought it a hopeless task to bring these people round one common table, but prejudices fortunately disappeared. Still greater difficulty was experienced in regard to sea-voyage to Europe and other places. When for the first time he proposed to his officers and others that a party should go to England, they all agreed and said

that they would accompany His Highness, but when the actual time for departure arrived, several withdrew. Still he did not waver an inch, and he set out on his voyage. By personal example and precept he was able to induce many. He was a strong believer in the enjoyment by every one of his subjects of their birthright, viz., liberty of conscience, and he had never tried to force social reforms on unwilling people. He had first to remove the difficulties in his own household. Even when he was in England in earlier years of his European tours he had in his camp people who used to jump off the carpet on a drawing-room floor, because another man of a lower caste had touched the carpet. He was, however, glad that all those superstitious sentiments had given room to the rule of reason and that progressive and better ideas now prevailed among a large section of his subjects. In conclusion he asked his hearers to get rid of the impression that they in India were the sole repository of wisdom and civilisation, and he emphasised the necessity of their keeping themselves in daily touch with the progressive West. They were sure to be beaten if they did not.

MATCH INDUSTRY IN MYSORE.

The Government of His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore have been considering the desirability of encouraging capitalists and enterprising organisers of capital for establishing paying and useful industries in the State, like paper manufacturing, match-making, pencil making and with that end in view employed experts to inspect the raw materials of the State, and to report on their suitability for manufacture and the chances of success, if the industries should be started.

The resources of the State in the matter of matchwood are ample and a capitalist can safely be assured of a good dividend on his outlay. Mr. R. S. Troup, Government of India Forest Economist, has discussed at great length the possibilities of match industry and has opined that the wood for matches requires to be fairly soft and should split easily. It should ignite easily and burn with a flame and when blown out, it should not smoulder. Wood of that description is largely available in the Province.

The matter is under the consideration of Government. Excellent possibilities exist for a pencil factory also. The machinery has to come from Germany and hence there is a lull in the prospect of starting the factory at present.

INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL SECTION.

THE INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE.

The following are some of the Resolutions passed by the recent Industrial Conference at Madras.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

(1) This Conference urges the local Government and administrations in India to establish trade schools and continuation classes for the training and education of workmen in all important industrial centres of each province and a superior technological college for each province for the training of foremen and apprentices.

(2) This Conference also requests the Government of India to establish one fully equipped first class college of technology for all India and to develop the Tata Research Institute at Bangalore for the purpose.

(3) This Conference calls upon Indian capitalists and managers of Indian factories and industrial institutions to help young Indians, technically trained, in finding practical training and employment.

(4) This Conference recommends the establishment of a public polytechnic institute on the line of such institutions in Europe.

DISTRICT BOARD RAILWAYS.

This Conference desires to record its opinion that in the development of the country by means of railway and irrigation projects, the funds available in the hands of the State should chiefly be devoted to the latter and that a portion of the funds set apart for the former should be utilised to aid the resources of local bodies, whose enterprise in the direction of the construction of branch and feeder lines and similar projects should be promoted by Government wherever possible in preference to that of private capitalists.

This Conference is grateful that the Government of India has recognised the desirability of local boards constructing and owning branch and feeder lines of railways and respectfully urges upon the Government the need for helping them to find the necessary funds as urged by the Madura District Board.

STATE AID TO INDUSTRIES.

(1) This Conference desires to record its opinion (i) that in view of the need, as disclosed by the war, of providing not only for the industrial efficiency of the British Empire as a whole, but

also of making India more self-sufficient and less dependent than she has been on foreign countries in regard to her economic needs, it is necessary that the fiscal policy of the country should be directed to promoting the growth of manufactures and the creation of an industrial regime side by side with the development of agriculture and the exploitation of raw material; (ii) that for the purpose it is necessary (a) that the representatives of the people should obtain fiscal autonomy in regard to the imposition of duties both on exports and imports, (b) that the State should aid the starting and pioneering of new industries through the establishment of a department of Government for the purpose; (iii) that Government should—simultaneously with a policy of introducing free primary education—also impart technical, industrial, and commercial education; and hereby reiterates the Resolution passed at the previous Conference for the establishment of technological institutes, industrial and commercial schools.

(2) This Conference urges more particularly the following measures in this connection:—

(a) That the several Governments, Provincial and Imperial do co-ordinate and complete the sporadic efforts so far made to have a complete industrial survey of the country.

(b) That Government should help in the present efforts for the starting and revival of industries by declaring its willingness to instruct its scientific and technical officers to investigate problems confronting organisers of industries and to give advice.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

This Conference is of opinion that the Government should continue as at present free of cost to exercise, through their officers, the functions of audit and inspection of co-operative societies in this country till they are thoroughly and efficiently organised into unions, to take up these duties themselves; that Government should maintain an adequate and trained staff for this purpose and that, in view of the deplorable condition of the artisan and industrial and labouring classes of the populations, special officers should be appointed under the co-operative departments in the various provinces to establish suitable co-operative institutions for their benefit.

HANDLOOM WEAVING AND COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

This Conference desires to record its opinion that it is necessary in the interests of the present and prospective economic well-being of the country that efforts should always be directed towards the starting and resuscitating the various minor and cottage industries to form an adjunct to the economic resources of a people mainly agricultural and recommend the improvement of the existing condition of the hand-weaving industry by the introduction of labour-saving appliances and other device of approved patterns in important centres of the handloom industry with the co-operation of the weaving classes and the organisation of peripatetic weaving demonstration parties.

INDIAN COMMERCIAL ATTACHES.

This Conference is of opinion that Indian commercial attachés should be appointed to the British Consulates outside British India to look after Indian commercial interests.

A CONSTITUTION FOR THE CONFERENCE.

This Conference is of opinion that the time has arrived for providing a working organisation for the Industrial Conference at all Provincial Centres and for improving the Constitution of the Conference so as to provide for working offices in all the provinces to carry on the work of the Conference throughout the year and hereby suggest for consideration the following constitution and instructs the Standing Committee of the Conference to scrutinise the same and place it for adoption before the next Conferences:—

I. The objects of the Indian Industrial Conference shall be attained:—

(1) By the holding of Annual Conference on Industries and Industrial Progress in India.

(2) By the establishment of Standing Provincial Committees for the co-ordination of efforts directed to the promotion of Industrial progress under the Central Committee.

(3) By the publication of periodical bulletins and reports on the work done and results achieved every three months, and by such other means as may be deemed advisable.

2. The Standing Committee of the All-India Industrial Conference shall consist of (1) the President of the previous Conference; (2) the Secretary and Assistant Secretary, the Treasurer, if necessary, of the Conference and the Secretaries of the Provincial Committees. The duty of carrying on the work of the Conference shall vest in the said Standing Committee who shall be placed in possession of funds for the purpose in accordance with these rules.

3. The All-India and Provincial Standing Committees may recognise other organisations sympathising with the objects of the Conference on payment of an annual fee of Rs. 10, and thereupon the said institutions shall be entitled to elect delegates to the Conferences held by the Provincial and All-India Committees. That the Provincial Standing Committees may arrange for the holding of provincial and district conferences and exhibitions from time to time.

4. That half the amount of the delegation fees and a further sum to be raised by subscriptions to an amount not exceeding—shall be placed at the disposal of the All-India Standing Committee for carrying on the work now being done by the Secretary on behalf of the Conference and the further amounts may be similarly raised whenever necessary.

5. That an account of the monies received and spent by the All-India Committee shall be rendered by them at the Annual Conference, and they shall arrange for its being duly audited and published.

6. That the business of the All-India Committees may, if necessary, be transacted by correspondence and by a majority of the votes recorded in each case.

7. That the work of holding the annual sessions of the Conference and the expenditure in connection therewith shall be performed by Reception Committees organised annually by the several Provincial Committees of the Provinces where the Conference is to assemble.

STANDING COMMITTEE, SECRETARIES AND FUNDS.

(a) That the following gentlemen do constitute the Standing Committee of the Conference for the year 1915 to advise the General Secretary on all matters and to carry on the work of the Conference:—Sir R. N. Mukerjee, the Hon. Mr. Manmohandas Ramji, the Hon. Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas, Rao Bahadur P. Theagaraya Chetty, Mr. Vidya Sagar Pandya, Mr. C. Y. Chintamani, Mr. Justice Hasan Imam (or Mr. Mazharul Haque), the Hon. Mr. M. B. Dadabhoy, Lala Mulk Raj Bhalla, and the Hon. Rao Bahadur R. N. Mudholkar.

(b) That the Hon. Rao Bahadur R. N. Mudholkar be appointed General Secretary of the Conference for the next year; Mr. N. A. Dravid, Honorary Assistant Secretary; and Mr. M. B. Sant, Assistant Secretary.

(c) That the Conference appeals to the public for Rs. 8,000 to carry on the work of the Indian Industrial Conference.

THE TRADE OF INDIA.

The following features are prominent in a study of the Report of Mr. G. Findlay Shirras, the Director of Statistics, about the trade of India: He finds that prices in 1913-14 were about 2 per cent. higher than in 1912-13, while the volume of foreign trade increased by about 4 per cent. The articles of export which show an important rise in price were tea, wheat and jute, while rice and linseed fell in price. There was an important increase in quantity in the case of raw cotton and a decrease in the cases of wheat, raw jute and opium. Mr. Shirras estimates that about 45 crores of rupees were remitted abroad for interest and services rendered in 1913-14, and that about 24 crores of new foreign capital entered the country. He states as the result of an inquiry that there has been a general rise in wages of about 3 per cent. in the leading industries of cotton, jute, paper and rice; and the greatest rises are of 9 per cent. in the cotton industry of Bombay and 9 per cent. in the woollen mills of Upper India. On the other hand, in spite of this rise in wages, he is of opinion that the supply of factory labour seems to be *extraordinarily insensitive* to even considerable increases in the prevailing level of wages. He says, "it is interesting to note that the rise in wages of industrial labour has not been so great as in the case of agricultural labourers and village artisans. Money-wages have over long periods increased in all industries, and the rise has been generally greater than or equal to the rise in retail prices, except in the tea, sugar and brewing industries. An examination of Indian wage statistics during the last decade shows that this is certainly the labourer's day."

A special memorandum has been prepared on the amount and character of Indian trade with Germany and Austria. Germany has been an important market for raw cotton, raw hides, raw jute and rice, the value exceeding 27 crores. The rice export is but a trifling percentage of the total production while the price of jute would be considerably influenced by the loss of the German market. There might be a temporary revival of the production of indigo, while the tanning industry might benefit to some extent.

As regards the pressing question of sugar, India which is the largest producer of cane sugar in the world producing no less than three million tons a year, imports in addition something like 1½ million tons annually. The recent huge increase in imports is mainly due to huge receipts

of cane sugar from Java and Mauritius, and has been encouraged by a substantial fall in price of about 10 per cent. Owing to the huge purchase of sugar lately made by the British Government from Java and Mauritius at an enhanced price, the Indian consumer who cannot afford to pay the enhanced price will have to be satisfied with what is produced by India herself, the more so since the supply of Austrian and German beet sugar has been cut off. Government subsidises for the production of sugar on more economical lines, on a larger scale, and with the assistance of central factories might go a good way towards helping indigenous production and national self-sufficiency in this important department of consumption.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT.

During the recent Co-operative Committee assembled at Delhi, Mr. Low, Director of Agriculture and Industries, Central Provinces, gave his views in respect of agricultural unions and to some extent of industrial societies. He pointed out the absolute necessity of securing close touch and friendly co-operation between registrars and directors of industrial and agricultural departments and thought the most probable solution lay in placing all three departments under the ultimate control of an officer of high administrative position such as the Financial Commissioner, a Member of the Board of Revenue, or a junior Member of Council. He also urged that the district officer, who was so intimately concerned with the economic position of the rajyat, should not be shut out from participation in the co-operative movement. He was of opinion that the financial basis of provincial co-operative credit had proved inadequate and advocated the bringing of the provincial organisation into close touch with the world's money market.

Kanwar Mihraj Singh, the next witness, advocated no relaxation of Government control over the movement as a whole but cautioned against a policy of spoon-feeding. He was opposed to cheap loans from Government or the conferment of summary powers of recovery. He deprecated uniformity and would allow local diversities and local experiments within certain broad limits.

Griedon Kunrar Maharaja expressed himself as a great believer in co-operative conferences of all kinds and also favoured the co-operation of the panchayat of co-operative societies in any future scheme for village administration.

TEN COMMANDMENTS.

We read that the following ten commandments have been distributed broadcast in Germany. If we substitute the word "Indian" for "German," the commandments are equally true of India and the Indians. We can take a lesson from the German enterprise however much we may despise their diplomacy:—(1) In all expenses, keep in mind the interests of your own compatriots. (2) Never forget that when you buy a foreign article, your own country is the poorer. (3) Your money should profit no one but Germans. (4) Never profane German factories by using foreign machinery. (5) Never allow foreign eatables to be served at your table. (6) Write on German paper, with a German pen, and use German blotting paper. (7) German flour, German fruit, etc., can alone give your body the true German energy. (8) If you do not like German malt coffee, drink coffee from German colonies. (9) Use only German clothes for your dress, and German hats for your head. (10) Let not foreign flattery distract you from these precepts. And be firmly convinced, whatever others say, that German products are the only ones worthy of the citizens of the German Fatherland.

TRADE BETWEEN INDIA & JAPAN.

In view of steady increase and future prospect of the trade between British India and Japan, several merchants and manufacturers in Japan, numbering forty so far, with the desire of extending the market in India, have forwarded their business descriptions, catalogues, price lists, etc., to the Consul-General of Japan in Calcutta, requesting him to have them transmitted to those who may have interests in entering into business connection with them. They cover general goods, cotton piece-goods, hosiery, cotton ropes, curios, metal and enamelled wares, porcelain wares, toys and fancy goods, perfumeries, brushes, umbrellas, hats and sewing machines, medical and surgical instruments, oil engines, surveying instruments, bags and trunks, glass utensils, inkstands, lemonade bottles, pearls, lawn tennis balls and guts, goods for outdoor games, buttons, watch chains, lockets, organs and violins, cement, motors, etc. Besides there are, in the Consulate General, still some copies of "Exporters' Directory of Japan" compiled by the Department of Commerce and Agriculture in Tokyo, and they may also be obtained *gratis*. In applying for same a visit to the office may be advisable.

THE FRENCH IMPORTS.

The Consul-General for France forwards a communication to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce in which he says that according to official information the "Surtaxe Dentrepot" applicable to goods of extra European origin imported from European warehouses into France has not been suppressed. In a general way, however, it has been decided in harmony with interested Ministerial departments that the goods of extra European origin despatched directly to France and which on account of the war events had to be unloaded in a European port will be exempted from payment of the "Surtaxe Dentrepot" on condition that the importers produce at Importation Bureau, besides the original bill of lading established directly for France, a certificate from Foreign Customs stating that the goods have not ceased to be under the supervision of its agents. As regards goods the supervision of which has been interrupted and which had to be warehoused, this supervision can be placed by a seal affixed by the customs on each package.

THE ENEMIES' GOODS.

In connection with the Commercial Intelligence Department's scheme to aid the replacement of German and Austrian goods by Indian goods, an exhibition is being opened in Calcutta showing locks, hinges and safes, metal, lamps, cutlery, etc., earthenware, pencils, brushes, toys, textiles, especially German shawls, blankets, flannels, mixed silk and cotton, velvets, Austrian shawls and braid. It is desired to exhibit at the same time samples of Indian manufactures of similar classes of goods, and Indian manufacturers are invited to send samples to the Director-General. Such an exhibition of samples will, it is hoped, be held later at Bombay and Madras, if suitable arrangements can be made. It is hoped that the holding of these exhibitions should produce excellent results. Those interested can take the fullest advantage of the opportunities the scheme holds out for a display of Swadeshi goods.

CO-OPERATIVE CONFERENCE.

The Provincial Co-operative Conference held its seventh session at Benares on the 12th and 13th December under the presidency of Mr. S. H. Fremantle, I.C.S., late Registrar of Co-operative Societies, and the present Collector of Allahabad. This was the first session held outside Lucknow under non-official auspices. About 150 representatives of the principal central and village societies in the province joined the Conference.

AGRICULTURAL SECTION.

COCOANUTS IN MADRAS.

During the war the export trade of the Madras Presidency in cocoanut products, ground-nut, cotton, etc., has of course been dislocated, the normal export of oil-cakes from India to Germany alone having been about 25 thousand tons. The Madras Government, says the *Madras Times*, has been doing its best to assist the trade by creating further demands from the United Kingdom. The Board of Trade in London has taken the trouble to refer the matter to such commercial institutions as the London Commercial Sales Rooms, the Liverpool Brokers' Association, and the Hull Chamber of Commerce. But nothing has come of it, and the Board of Trade, after doing its best has written that "the position of the Madras Presidency to supply large quantities of cocoanut products is perfectly understood by manufacturers in England, and it is not clear what action can usefully be taken by His Majesty's Government." A notice has been inserted in the "Board of Trade Journal," and the matter has been brought to an end with the ever-depressing remark "Recorded." Exporters can only hope for better times. Things are not as bad as they were; and when the end of the war comes, everything will be in sudden demand. Meanwhile, cocoanuts, like all things, have to bide their time.

WHAT TO GROW.

The Director of Agriculture and Industries in the Punjab has issued the following notice to the Zamindars in the Province:—All landowners and cultivators would do well to restrict sowings of toria and rape (sarson) this year. Owing to war, the exports of rape to Europe are likely to be small. On the other hand, the prices of wheat, barley, and grain are sure to be high. The Russian and Canadian crops are short, and Argentine sowings are a million acres down, so the English and European demand for wheat will be large. In 1911, when the Russian barley crop was short large exports of barley from the Punjab went to England for brewing; the same thing is likely to happen next spring. Gram is sure to be wanted in Europe for horses and cattle.

DAIRY ENTERPRISE.

The following, says the *Indian Agricultural World*, are essentials for the proper equipment of a successful dairying enterprise: (1) sufficient head of cattle; (2) ample grazing facilities; (3) clean cattle sheds; (4) wholesome supply of water; (5) reserve fodder, hay, bran, etc; (6) machinery for contracting cream, butter, etc; (7) vessels for storing, heating, packing; (8) fuel; (9) establishment in two places; and (10) necessary capital.

FISH AS CATTLE FOOD.

Mr. R. C. Wood, Principal of the Agricultural College, Coimbatore, contributes an article on "The Use of Fish and Cattle Food" to the October issue of the *Agricultural Journal of India*. "The general conclusions," he says, "are that no ill effects follow from the addition of fish to a mixed ration for cattle; and that after a little time no trouble is experienced in getting the cattle to eat it freely. So far as its fattening value is concerned, the fish does not compare favourably with groundnut. From a financial point of view fish is not to be recommended for inland localities, though it is probable that on the coast itself, in favourable seasons especially, a considerable saving might be effected by its use."

PAPER PULP IN INDIA.

The Forest Research Institute, at Dehra Dun, has just issued its Progress Report for the year 1913-14, which is an interesting document. We learn from it that the department conducted among other things investigation into paper and match manufacture. Two grasses, *Phragmites Karka* and *Anthisteria Gigantea* were tested for paper pulp on a comparatively large scale in two Indian paper mills. The results, it is stated, were negative and did not come up to expectation. For want of time and proper assistance to the Economist the investigation has been postponed. It is, however, interesting to learn that tests of the value of bamboo pulp have proved more promising and that an agreement for a bamboo concession over a comparatively large area has been signed.

WHEAT CRISIS IN NORTHERN INDIA.

The significance of the recent Wheat Conference in Delhi is fully explained by the following correspondence which is now published :—

(1) Telegram from the Government of India to the Karachi Chamber of Commerce: "Government of India are considering the serious situation which has arisen in Northern India owing to the sudden rise in the price of wheat and unless the situation unexpectedly improves measures will be necessary to secure that adequate supplies are available for the wheat consuming population at reasonable prices. A letter on this subject is issuing at once in which it is stated that the Government will be glad, before taking further action, to discuss the question with representatives of the wheat trade, and they will be obliged if you will bring this to the notice of members of your Chamber who are interested. 'It is suggested that the Conference with Government should take place at Delhi towards the end of next week. The matter is urgent, and I am to ask that if the suggestion is accepted you should inform the Government of India by telegram as soon as possible after receipt of the letter the names of representatives and whether the date proposed is suitable.'"

(2) Telegram dated 28 November from the Chamber to the Government of India: "While deprecating any action which would artificially fix the price of wheat, the Chamber believe that Government will not find such action necessary. Price of wheat is declining and has already dropped two rupees per candy in Karachi owing to easier advices from Europe, and is lower than at most up-country stations where exporters are not buying. In Chamber's opinion future prices for the balance of the old crop are more likely to be governed by internal demand than by export."

The Chamber consider that the Conference is unnecessary, but if Government wish will name representatives."

(3) Telegram from the Government of India to Chamber: "Your telegram of yesterday. Government of India still consider that Conference is desirable. Please see my letter."

(4) Letter from the Government of India to the Chamber:—I am directed to say that the attention of the Government of India has been drawn to the situation which has arisen in Northern India owing to the sudden and acute rise which has taken place in the price of wheat.

Wheat is now reported to be selling at famine prices, and it is feared that any further rise may be followed by consequences of a very serious nature. The Government of India are taking powers by an Ordinance to take possession of all stocks of commodities that are being unreasonably withheld from the market. The form and scope of the Ordinance follow closely the Act recently passed in England under which similar powers are conferred on His Majesty's Government in respect of supplies in the United Kingdom. Under this Ordinance, if the present prices continue or a further rise occurs action may be taken to obtain possession of stocks either intended for export or being held for a rise. The Government of India are informed that very extensive contracts have been made for wheat intended for export, and it has been suggested to them that the stocks available for local consumption have thus been reduced beyond the margin of safety. In this connection the Government of India have been asked to consider the advisability of prohibiting the export of wheat. They were averse to the adoption of any such measure, but they consider it of the greatest importance that the causes of the present situation should be accurately ascertained and the necessary steps taken to procure an adequate supply for internal consumption.

The Government of India desire, so far as may be possible, to avoid, in any measures which may be adopted, any unnecessary interference with the ordinary operations of trade, and they are disposed to think that before further steps are taken in the matter the situation might very usefully form the subject of discussion between themselves and representatives of the wheat trade.

LAND FOR TRIAL CROP.

If you are trying any new crop or new method of cultivation for the first time, says the *Wealth of India*, do not select your worst land or your best land, but try it on land of average quality. If you try it on your worst land without any previous experience the trial may fail; while if you try it on your best land you may be inclined to discount any improvement on that account. On land of average quality, you will at once see if a new crop or method pays, you can then with confidence try this on your best land and you will have gained experience which will help you in making it a success on your poorest land.

Literary.

THE TRUMPET.

Dr. Rabindra Nath Tagore has written the following Poem on the War:—

Thy trumpet lies in the dust.
The wind is weary, the light is dead. Ah, the evil day!
Come fighters, carrying your flags, and singers with your songs!

Come pilgrims, hurrying on your journey!
The trumpet lies in the dust waiting for us.

I was on my way to the temple with my evening offerings.

Seeking for the heaven of rest after the day's dusty toil;
Hoping my hurts would be healed and stains in my garments washed white,

When I found thy trumpet lying in the dust.

Has it not been the time for me to light my lamp?
Has my evening not come to bring me sleep?
O, thou blood-red rose, where have my poppies faded?
I was certain my wanderings were over and my debts all paid

When suddenly I came upon thy trumpet lying in the dust.

Strike my drowsy heart with thy spell of youth!

Let my joys in life blaze up in fire,
Let the shafts of awakening fly piercing the heart of night
and a thrill of dread shake the palsied blindness,

I have come to raise thy trumpet from the dust.

Sleep is no more for me—my walk shall be through showers of arrows.

Some shall run out of their houses and come to my side—some shall weep,
Some in their beds shall toss and groan in dire dreams;
For to-night thy trumpet shall be sounded.

From thee I had asked peace only to find shame.

Now I stand before thee—help me to don my armour!

Let hard blows of trouble strike fire into my life.

Let my heart beat in pain—beating the drum of thy victory.

My hands shall be utterly emptied to take up thy trumpet.

THE POPULAR REPRINT.*

The popular reprint of old literature and of authorship not necessarily old, says John Milne, shows that education has reached the multitude and that the mass of the people are awakening to the power of knowledge. Johnson was in a way the father of the reprint in bulk; and George Bohn was the first English publisher who made reprinting his distinctive business. Mr. J.M. Dent, "the prince of reprinters" has sold in eight years as many as fourteen million volumes of "Everyman" which is the largest reprint venture of the world. His "Temple Shakespeare" has sold nearly 2½ million volumes in fifteen years. Cassell's "National Library" and "People Library" have also sold surprisingly well. Bohn in

his new shilling volumes still makes the literary and the serious things go best. Nelson's "Shilling Library" reprints current works which have shown their quality in the more highly priced original editions. The six-penny reprints in paper covers in which Chatto and Windus take the lead, have also made popular appeals. And a recent advance has been made recently on the six-penny print by the seven-penny cloth which Nelson's started. The "Home University Library" and "The People's Books" though not belonging strictly to the reprint movement, are yet adjuncts to it, since they bring the various aspects of human thought and action to the doors of the masses.

GOETHE AND PATRIOTISM.

Goethe was hardly able, perhaps, quite to continue "business as usual" during the battle of Jena. The French cannon burst over his house and the bayonets of the Prussians in flight gleamed over his garden wall. Later the French Marshal Augereau was quartered in the poet's house, with directions to secure it from pillage. Some drunken soldiers, however, before the Marshal's arrival broke into the home and forced Goethe to come from his bed to drink with them. The French spared Goethe's precious manuscripts, though they drank twelve casks of his wine in three days. Goethe was much blamed at the time by patriotic Germans for his want of patriotism, his indifference to the fate of his country, and his open admiration of Napoleon. But he held that conquest of territory was an accidental achievement, that political independence was a minor matter, and that true greatness does not depend on these, but on intellectual conquests. When Eckermann reproached Goethe for not having written war songs like Korner and Uhland, he replied: "How could I take up arms without hatred, and how could I hate without youth? We cannot all serve our country in the same way. I have only composed love songs when I have loved, and how could I write songs of hatred without hating?" Goethe's father showed a very different spirit. When French soldiers were quartered in his house during the Seven Years' War, Councillor Goethe could not conceal his anti-French spirit, and was placed under arrest for expressing the wish that the Prussians had "blown all the French to the devil" in one of the engagements. But the young Goethe, then ten years old, made friends with the French commander, learned French from him, and accompanied him to the French theatre which the French troops established in Frankfurt-on-Main during their stay.

* An article by John Milne.

Educational.

EDUCATION IN BRITISH INDIA.

The following figures from the recent Quinquennial Report of the Government of India may be noted with interest:—

In 1912 the number of pupils in the institutions of British India was a little over $6\frac{3}{4}$ millions, an increase of 26 per cent. during the five years under review. The percentage of the total population at school is 2·7. The total amount spent upon education has risen in the period from $3\frac{3}{4}$ to 5½ millions sterling. The primary schools throughout the country number 110,692, with pupils numbering $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions and teachers 171,359. The secondary schools show a considerable increase: in 1912 they provided for nearly 400,000 pupils. The prevalence of voluntary agency may be illustrated by the fact that out of 3,852 high and middle English schools, only 216 are (Government institutions. In the arts colleges affiliated to the universities there were 28,196 students (279 being girls); twenty years ago the number was only 8,060.

THE HEURISTIC METHOD OF TEACHING.

Mr. G. Stephen in the course of an article on the above subject in the *Educational Review* claims the following advantages for this method:

1. A spirit of confidence is engendered in the minds of the discoverer. He is becoming more and more self-reliant. Instead of slavishly adhering to the dictates of mere authority, he becomes an original discoverer and thus finds sufficient ground to support authority that is really worthy of the name.

2. This gives the best training for the mind as it is both natural and scientific; natural in the sense of following the logical and psychological development which is natural to the mind, and scientific in the sense that there is an orderly exposition of the fact to be assimilated. He learns how to reason, both inductively and deductively.

3. It avoids all cram and yet the pupil can learn and retain more than by mere cram.

4. It can be adopted with more or less fullness in the teaching of all the subjects. In the words of Professor Meiklejohn "The heuristic method is the *only* method to be applied in the pure sciences; and it is *a* method in the study of those great works of art in language by the greatest minds which go by the general name of literature.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

Mr. G. K. Devdhar in moving the Resolution on Female Education at the recent Social Conference at Madras said that the progress in female education in this country was the outcome of missionary enterprise and Government encouragement. People of India by themselves had not yet done anything appreciable in that direction. It must be urged upon the attention of the Government and people of India to try their level best to hasten the education of women in the country. The education of Indian women should be so directed as to enable them to become useful factors in their daily life. The responsibility lay more with the people than with the Government. If they left out of account the missionary enterprise in that direction nothing could be left to the credit of the Indian people. They had not done as much as they ought to have done. Women were the presiding deities in the Indian household. They happened to be the pivots upon which every action of the household turned. They deserved better treatment at their hands. Women were as intelligent and industrious as men; if not more. Indian women in the past had a glorious record to their credit. Their morality and sense of honour were very great. Progress in India would be impossible without considerable progress in the female education in the country. Women in India must be inspired by one dominant idea. They should understand that they had duties, other than those relating to their household life, to perform. The national regeneration of India would not be complete if Indian women be not made potential factors in the national life of the country.

POST-VEDIC STUDIES.

A new chair of post-Vedic studies which has been founded in the University of Allahabad has recently been inaugurated. The Chancellor (His Honour Sir James Meston) presided, while the Vice-Chancellor Dr. Sundar Lal and the newly appointed occupant of the chair, Dr. A. Venis M.A., C.I.E. were also present. The ceremony was attended by all the members of the Senate.

BOMBAY MATRICULATION RESULTS.

The results of the Bombay University Matriculation Examination show that out of 455 candidates sent up from the Karachi centre only 66 have passed. This works out at nearly 15 per cent. a figure which is exceptionally low. It is understood that the majority of the students came to grief in the English papers.

Legal.

THE LEGAL PROFESSION IN ANCIENT INDIA.

Mr. Ranendra Nath Bose, writing in a recent number of the *Modern Review* criticises Mr. Jayaswal's remarks on *Sukra Niti* in the *Calcutta Law Journal*, and declares that his description of the status of a Lawyer in Ancient India is off-hand and incorrect. Mr. Bose deduces from Chapter IV of the *Sukra Niti* the status, qualifications, fees, etc., of the legal profession; while Mr. Jayaswal's references all apply to the Jury which also clearly existed in our land. The Sanskrit term for the pleader is *Niyogi*; he was required to have a knowledge of both the Dharma and Vyavahara to be the accredited and appointed representative of the plaintiff or the defendant and to produce the *Vakalat Nama* if required. Pleadings may be the kith and kin of the interested parties or outsiders who have studied the law to represent laymen in consideration of fees. Usually their fees are $\frac{1}{10}$ of the interests involved (i.e., the value defended or realised). The pleader is not at all appointed at the will of the king.

Besides pleaders, there were jurors who assisted the judges and the courts. They were required to know Dharma, but were not representatives of anybody and did not receive appointment from the parties. The jury usually consisted of (1) local men living on the spot, (2) judicious merchants because possibly of their varied experience and sedate views and (3) outsiders who may happen to be present as audience at trials. It appears that the first two classes were invited by the king to help him in administering justice; and that lay visitors were allowed the privilege of speaking, not certainly as somebody's advocates but as impartial observers. The jurors did not receive fees, and formed a distinct body entirely different from the lawyers.

This account of lawyers and jurors anticipates modern practice in some very important points—like trial by Peers, non-payment of jurymen, regulation of advocates, etc. The modern idea of representation by proxy or personation by advocate is clearly indicated; and the legal fiction by which the proxy becomes the original for the purpose of answering queries and asking questions was well-developed.

DR. KRISHNA PANDALAI.

We understand that Mr. K. Krishna Pandalai, B.A., B.L. Barrister-at-law, till recently an acting Judge of the Travancore High Court and now practising in Madras as an Advocate at the Madras High Court, has received the Degree of LL.D. from the University of London. Mr. Pandalai passed the LL. B. of the London University during his stay in that city, reading for the Bar. On his return to India, after being called to the Bar, he prepared his thesis for the LL.D. the subject being "Succession and partition in Marumakkathayam Law." One of Mr. Krishna Pandalai's younger brothers, Lieutenant Gopinath Pandalai is in the Indian Medical Service.

THE LEGAL ASPECT OF POST PUBERTY MARRIAGES.

The Hon. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri in moving his Resolution on the Post Puberty Marriage Bill at the Madras Social Conference made the following observations:—

In the opinion of the law-givers mantras had meaning and inferences could be drawn from the meaning of mantras. Elsewhere in other Provinces post-puberty marriages had been performed for some years and no question of legality of such marriages had ever arisen. In the Madras Presidency there was a doubt as to the legality of such marriages and in that respect Madras was peculiarly circumstanced. Madras was always in the habit of making the ground sure before a step was taken. Like the elephant the Madras people were too sagacious. A doubt as to the legality of such marriages was expressed by eminent lawyers and jurists of this Presidency, who were of opinion that a permissive and declaratory legislation like the one before the Madras Legislative Council was necessary. A doubt was felt and it must be removed by law. Who could remove the legal doubt if not the legislature? Sir T. Muthuswamy Aiyar gave an *obiter dictum* that a Hindu girl should be married before puberty and that in *bona fide* cases of post-puberty marriages without force or fraud he would feel justified in legalising such marriages on the doctrine of *factum de valid*. Post-puberty marriages should not be celebrated on the supposition that some judge like Sir T. Muthuswamy Aiyer might take a liberal view of the matter if the validity of such marriages were questioned. Further the doctrine of *factum de valid* did not find a wide application. The protection from law was quite necessary. The law was bound to come to the rescue of even small communities which laboured under the difficulties of custom.

Medical.

SLEEPLESSNESS: THE REMEDY.

There can be no real health without sleep says the *Popular Science Siftings* for it is sleep that restores the nervous poise of the system after the daily exhaustion occasioned by the demands of life. Hence when a state of insomnia or sleeplessness prevails, a remedy should be found. . If a change in the mode of living i.e., diet or methods of rest or time for retiring—will not effect the needed result, then we may have resort to medicine, but not to drugs of the opium family or the death-dealing white tablets—strange to say, they usually originate in black coal—which have poured in on us of late from Germany. There are safe preparations which have no relation to any of these, and among them is "Trankinal," which we have tested and found efficacious and without those depressing after-effects which are the accompaniment of other sedatives, Trankinal can be employed by all.

THE SCHOOL OF TROPICAL MEDICINE.

The following letter has been addressed by the Honorary Secretary, the School of Tropical Medicine Endowment Fund, to the Surgeon-General with the Government of Bengal:—

I have the honour to forward herewith the first subscription list of the School to Tropical Medicine Endowment Fund, showing a balance of Rs. 1,72,451-7-0 to its credit. The expenses of printing and distributing the appeal have been met privately, so that the full amounts subscribed, less the Bank of Bengal charges, are available.

I desire to draw the attention of Government to the generous donation of Rs. 50,000 by Kumar Birendra Chandra Sinha, of the Paikpara Raj, to endow a bed to be called after his nominee. I am greatly indebted to Rai Kailash Chandra Bose Bahadur, C I E., for collecting the large sum of Rs. 5,628. I also wish to express my thanks to the Railway Board for allowing the Companies under its control to contribute substantial sums. The Committee of the Tea, Jute, and Mining Associations have each supported my appeal for Rs. 20,000 a year for five years to enable three additional research workers to be employed on investigations of the tropical diseases most prevalent among their labour forces and large proportions of the sums asked for have been already promised.

The war will unfortunately delay the opening of the School, but will allow of the Hospital for Tropical Diseases being built in the meantime, as the site has been already fully acquired by the Bengal Government. A further considerable sum will be required for equipping the Hospital, part of which has already been promised.

A DISTINGUISHED INDIAN M.D.

Dr. Jivraj Mehta of Bombay who was placed first on the list and was awarded the Gold Medal in the London M. D. Examination, belongs to a Hindu family in Kathiawar, and proceeded to England on a Tata Studentship and Sir Mangaldas Nathubhoy Scholarship for higher Medical studies after passing the Bombay L.M.S. with distinction from the Grant Medical College in 1908. He had a brilliant educational career, and had won many prizes and medals. He was the first Indian, after a quarter of a century, to be appointed Clinical Assistant at a London Hospital. In England he has taken part in many public movements in which Indians are interested, and after the declaration of war he was an active supporter of the Indian Ambulance Corps and worked zealously with Mr. Gandhi.

ALL-INDIA SUB-ASSISTANT SURGEONS' CONFERENCE.

All-India Sub-Assistant Surgeons' Conference met at Nagpur on the 21st Dec. 1914, the Hon'ble Colonel Damys, Inspector of Hospitals presiding. A large number of delegates were present from different districts.

DUM-DUM WOUNDS.

Instructions have been given in the hospitals at Paris that careful and properly certified reports are to be drawn up for cases where wounds are found to have been inflicted by dum-dum bullets.

"The obligation we are under, says the Official Communique, to take the necessary care of German wounded, many of whom were too severely wounded to be removed from the field of battle by their own ambulances is an imperative duty which is imposed upon us not only by international legislation and the rules of Geneva Convention, but also by the sentiments of humanity which we desire to be reciprocal for our own wounded and prisoners in Germany. The doctors and their assistants called upon to administer to the needs of their wounded enemies are aware of this obligation. We know too well the lofty sentiments of our hospital personnel to doubt for an instant that they will accomplish this duty with all the devotion that is desirable, and which will not deprive our own wounded of the care and solicitude to which they have a right. Further, we are authorised to state that the Minister of War will not hesitate to rebuke any person—even voluntary assistant—who do not conform to the humanitarian rules so judiciously set out in the Geneva Convention with respect to wounded prisoners."

Science.

GENERAL SHRAPNEL.

In spite of a name that does not sound altogether English, General Shrapnel, the inventor of the universal shell that has wrought such havoc upon the battlefields of Europe, was an English officer who got his commission in the Royal Artillery in 1779. When serving with the Duke of York's army in Flanders he was impressed by the trifling effect of round shot against troops in the field, and by the limited range of "grape shot." The shell he devised was filled with carbine balls and fitted with a time fuse igniting a small bursting charge of powder, having the effect of musketry fire at a long distance. In 1802 his perfected invention was adopted in the British army; Wellington stated that the most important battle in the Peninsular War and Waterloo itself, were won by shrapnel. The secret of its action was unknown outside England until 1834. Had the inventor been a German he might have been honoured by the present generation of Teutons as Wagner and Goethe were by the last. But Shrapnel, says a contemporary died a poor and disappointed man, for the Government, though it gave him £1,200 a year and offered him a baronetcy, which he could not afford to accept, failed to replenish the capital he had exhausted upon his experiments. Thus an impoverished estate fell to his son who had to sell Midway Manor and with it the park gate pillars with their pyramids of shrapnel shells and the list of British battles which they had helped to win.

THE TORPEDO.

A torpedo fitted with the newest type of gyroscope rudder is more deadly than a shell from the biggest naval gun; for the accuracy with which it glides through the water to its prey is almost uncanny. The gyroscope keeps the rudders exactly as they are set before the torpedo is fired and only by a swift unexpected move can a ship at which a torpedo is aimed escape. The vertical rudders steer the torpedo, the horizontal ones keep it at its correct depth under water. The torpedoes used in the British Navy are of three diameters—fourteen, eighteen, and twenty-one inches—and they vary in length from sixteen to eighteen feet. A torpedo is driven by compressed air, which first passes through the heater, acting through the engines on twin propellers, fitted to the tail of the weapon. The propellers revolve in opposite directions, thus counter-acting any tendency to turn right or left on the torpedo's

part. The small propeller 'unscrews' the safety catch off the striker while torpedo is in the water. One of the newest types of British torpedo perfected by Lieutenant Hardcastle, R. N. weighs 1,600 pounds and is charged with 250 pounds of guncotton which explodes on impact by means of an appliance fitted in the nose of the torpedo and which is sufficient to blow a hole as large as a haystack in the side of a battleship. It has an effective range of about four miles. The guncotton is kept wet to keep it from exploding until actually struck. As soon as a torpedo hits its mark it explodes automatically, and there are only two methods of defence against it. One is to locate and shell the attacking torpedo boat of submarine: the other to drop steel-wire-nets all round the ship.

SAFETY OF NEW EXPLOSIVE.

Trinitrotoluene, the explosive thought to have been used instead of any new compound, in the attacks on Belgium's forts, is obtained by treating toluene, a benzene-like hydrocarbon from coal-tar, with strong nitric and sulphuric acids. It is notably safe to handle, as even the impact of a rifle bullet does not explode it, and when set on fire by heat it burns slowly and quietly. For explosive effect it must be detonated by mercuric fulminate. It is less powerful than guncotton when exploded near the target, but has much greater effect when acting at some distance, and bursts a shell into larger and more destructive pieces than picric acid.

A SCIENTIFIC TREE.

So far from the Shuman Sun-Power plant being treated as a scientific tree it has aroused genuine interest among engineers and promises to lead to important developments. In a paper, read recently before the Institution of Engineers and Ship-builders in Scotland, Mr. George Hally gave much information on the subject and furnished a map indicating such parts of the globe on which the plant, in its present state of development, might be worked with advantage. Very little of Europe is included in the practicable sphere, but in Asia there is a large area including all Arabia, Persia, Baluchistan, India as far as Sind and the Punjab are concerned, and the whole of Tibet. Parts of Africa, America and Australia are also included. These lands have been selected because they have the necessary degree of sunshine and atmospheric dryness to work the plant profitably, and it is believed that when the efficiency of the plant has been further improved the area of its usefulness will be greatly enlarged.

Personal.

MR. G. SUBRAMANIA IYER.

It is but appropriate that a portrait of Mr. G. Subramania Iyer should adorn the hall of the Madras Mahajana Sabha. Mr. T. Rangachari, B.A., B.L., who presented the portrait to the Sabha admirably compressed Mr. Iyer's services in one sentence when he said "To him South India owes what little political activity it has." The Hon. Nawab Syed Mohamed who accepted the portrait on behalf of the Sabha referred to his thirty-five years' acquaintance with Mr. Iyer. Mr. Iyer has been a veteran journalist for 40 years, a social reformer, a popular leader and a student of Indian economics. As the founder of the Mahajana Sabha, he has been intimately associated with it for over 25 years and it is but fitting that his portrait should be hung in the Sabha Hall.

Mr. Surendranath Bannerjee who unveiled the portrait bore eloquent testimony to Mr. Iyer's great services: He said:—

"Whatever political life there is in Madras it is due to his impulse and his inspiration I think that is absolutely true. He started the *Hindu*, he founded the Mahajana Sabha, the most influential political organisation in this Presidency, started the *Swadeshi Mitran*, and I am at the present moment humbly following, though at great distance, his footsteps by starting a vernacular journal. Imitation is the most effective form of admiration. That is the tribute of homage that I lay at the feet of the great man we honour at the present moment. He went to England in 1897, he gave evidence before the Welby Commission, I was his colleague then. His grasp of the economic problems was phenomenal and he spoke with a force, lucidity and accuracy that rivetted the attention of the listeners, extorted the admirations of all. Such a man deserves all honour at our hands. The value of that honour is doubly enhanced by the conviction that he is in the land of the living and is in a position to appreciate it."

The ceremony of the unveiling of the portrait was attended by Mr. Bupendranath Basu, Mr. Motilal Ghose and other distinguished men from other parts of India. The painting is the work of a native artist which is an excellent likeness of Mr. Iyer in his active days.

THE HON. E. C. HARDINGE.

The first casualty list after the out-break of war contained the name of the Hon. E. C. Hardinge, of the 15th Hussars, among the wounded. It has since been announced that he has died from blood-poisoning. The news has been received with the greatest regret in India. No expression of sympathy with His Excellency the Viceroy can mitigate this loss, which comes in such close proximity to another and a greater. But he has the satisfaction of knowing that his son's death follows an action of great gallantry in which the young lieutenant well-maintained the traditions of his family, and for which he was rewarded with the D.S.O. "A career of much promise has been cut short at the outset but not, without effect, for as the *Times of India* says, "in this fresh sorrow His Excellency the Viceroy may find a fresh bond which will bring the people of India and the English in India closer to him."

THE FIRST INDIAN V.C.

The following communications from a responsible source has been transmitted to the Viceroy from the Secretary of State:—The first Indian to win the Victoria Cross was Sepoy Khudabad Khan, 129th Duke of Connaught's Own Baluchis. He was in the regimental machine-gun section which was on the 30th October placed in the portion of defence held by the 50th Lancers. This part of the line was subjected to very heavy bombardment, and the machine-gun section particularly was singled out for especially heavy shell fire. Man after man was hit, but the brave detachment continued to serve their guns, inflicting severe loss on the enemy. Eventually one of the two guns was put out of action by a direct hit on it by a shrapnel shell. The British Officer, Captain R. F. Dill, commanding the section, was wounded in the head at about the time, but continued until he was forced to give up the command and was carried to the rear. The team of the remaining gun, however, still kept on firing under the command of Colour Havildar Ghulam Mahomed. The enemy afforded excellent target at close range, and the gun did much execution. Eventually, however, the enemy developing into vastly superior forces, advanced to the attack regardless of the losses inflicted. The heroic gun team fighting till the last were bayoneted at their posts. Khudabad Khan, the sole survivor, though badly wounded, managed after a time to rejoin his company but did not quit his gun till they had ensured that it would be valueless to the enemy.

Political.

CANDIDATES FOR INDIAN APPOINTMENTS.

A press *communiqué* states that the Secretary of State for India in Council has decided to extend to candidates for appointment to the Civil Service of India (open competition), the Indian Forest Service, the Indian Public Works Department, the Indian State Railways (Traffic Department), or the Indian Finance (Military) and Customs Department, who are employed during the present war on field service with any unit recognised by the War Office or the admiralty (including ambulance or interpreters corps), the concessions as regards age notified in the press *communiqué* of the 13th November, 1914, as applicable to candidates who render service in the Regular Army or the Royal Navy or Royal Marines or in the special Reserve or Territorial Force during mobilisation or embodiment in connection with a state of war.

(1) Any candidate eligible in point of age under the regulations as they now stand for admission to the examination or competition held in the year 1915, 1916 or 1917 who would be over age in 1915, 1916, or 1917 respectively may deduct from his actual age at the time of the examination or competition held in 1916, 1917, or 1918 as the case may be (a) the actual period of such service if it has not exceeded three months. (b) One year if the actual period of such service has exceeded three months. No candidate will be allowed to deduct more than last year from his actual age.

(2) In order to benefit by this concession the candidate must have joined before the 31st December, 1915 the unit with which such field service is rendered.

(3) All candidates who become eligible for this concession will be required to furnish an official certificate of the period of their service.

INDIAN PRISONERS IN TRIESTE.

According to the report of the American Consul at Trieste, the Indian prisoners in Austria who number 28 from Calcutta and 7 from Bombay, are treated well and their religious scruples are respected. As most of the prisoners are Mahomedans, the Government furnishes them live lambs which they are allowed to slaughter and prepare in their own kitchen. Rice and bread are liberally supplied.

"A PRACTICAL TEST OF SINCERITY."

The following letter from Sir William Wedderburn was published in a recent issue of the *New Statesman* :—

Lord Curzon, speaking at Glasgow of India's attitude towards the British Empire, said that "there had never been anything in history to compare with this demonstration of Indian devotion." This was well said. Further, with less delicacy of perception, he declared that the British Empire "stood for justice, uprightness good Government, mercy and truth." The bestowal of this certificate of merit had better have been left to others.

There is now sitting a Royal Commission on the Indian Public Service. Lord Islington is the Chairman; copious evidence has been taken in India as to the qualifications of Indians and Europeans respectively; and the Commissioners are considering their report. The first, and most important point is to determine the principles upon which appointments in the civil departments should be filled; and with regard to this point I would submit the two following propositions; first, that *prima facie* Indians have a claim to all appointments in the service of their own country, and that outsiders should not be appointed except on good cause shown; second, that in the interest of the Indian taxpayer all salaries should be fixed at ordinary market rates, and that fancy salaries should not be paid to foreigners so long as, at market rates, qualified Indians are available for the duties.

This is a matter which Indians will regard as a practical test of British sincerity: and it is hoped that, in determining the principles on which they will act, the Commissioners will show that the British Empire stands for justice, uprightness, and good government.

H. E. THE VICEROY AND THE CONGRESS.

The President of the Indian National Congress has received the following telegram from the Private Secretary to H. E. the Viceroy:—"Your telegram forwarding Resolutions passed by the Indian National Congress has been laid before H. E. the Viceroy, who desires me to thank you for it. He warmly appreciates the enthusiasm with which the Congress has voiced the loyal spirit of India, and heartily shares in their gratification that India had been afforded an opportunity of demonstrating this loyalty to the world by sending her gallant troops to fight for the Empire in this great struggle. Their message to the Indian troops will be forwarded to their Commander."

General.

CO-OPERATION IN MADRAS.

The following are the Resolutions passed at the recent Madras Provincial Co-operative Conference held in the Pachaiyappa's Hall on 2nd January:—

I. With reference to the notification dated 6th June 1914, published in the *Fort St. George Gazette* regarding the question of the levy of audit fees from co-operative societies, this Conference is of opinion that the charges of audit should, in the present condition of the movement, be borne by Government.

II. This Conference is of opinion that as regards inspection, as distinguished from audit, speedy steps should be taken to gradually devolve this work on supervising unions composed of contiguous societies and that, till this can be effected, Government should continue to have societies inspected as at present.

III. This Conference is of opinion that Central Banks should interest themselves in the inspection of supervising unions and help in the work of inspection as far as possible.

IV. This Conference thinks that it is desirable that primary societies should be admitted as shareholders of Central Co-operative Banks.

V. This Conference is of opinion that the Indian Trusts Act should be so amended as to permit the investment of trust funds in Co-operative Societies; that in the meanwhile, the Local Government should be requested to move the High Court of Judicature at Madras to frame a rule authorising such investments and empower District Boards and Municipal Bodies to invest their funds in such societies.

VI. This Conference, while thanking Government for entrusting twenty Selected Societies in the Presidency with the carrying out of certain measures of sanitary improvement, would urge a wider extension of the experiment and the inclusion of other responsibilities, such as looking after Education, Irrigation and Forest Administration.

VII. 1. This Conference is of opinion that efforts should be made to promote Agricultural Societies for the joint purchase and sale of seed, fodder, manure, implements and the disposal of agricultural products.

2. This Conference considers that Building Societies and Societies aiming at the revival of indigenous industries such as weaving should be freely promoted and helped financially by

Government and urges on Government the desirability of appointing special officers for this purpose.

VIII. This Conference considers that the promotion of Societies in the Northern Districts of the Presidency in particular should be pushed forward.

IX. This Conference urges that co-operative societies should support the Madras Provincial Co-operative Union, Ltd., by taking shares in it, and otherwise helping it to do its work efficiently.

X. This Conference requests Government to remove the restrictions placed on Government servants as to taking part in the management in Co-operative Societies in Municipalities.

XI. This Conference desires to impress on Co-operative Societies, especially District Co-operative Banks, the importance of raising local deposits instead of looking for help to outside financing institutions.

XII. This Conference urges on Co-operative Societies the desirability of enforcing the punctual repayment of instalments of loans as they fall due.

XIII. That this Conference is of opinion that in order to ensure efficient inspection and audit of co-operative societies, the status of Inspection should be raised.

XIV. That this Conference requests the Government to encourage the Productive Societies, especially Weavers' Societies, by reducing to one half the postage payable on all articles sent out by such societies, and to recommend the Railway Companies to grant a similar concession in respect of freight.

M. MAETERLINK ON THE WAR.

It is a pitiful story I have to relate, said a Belgian author in London. It is the story of a little kingdom which has kept its pledge and died for it. Belgium was established as a buffer State against two great contending Powers to prevent the passage of one army into the territory of the other, and her neutrality was guaranteed by the greatest Power in Europe—England. We have kept our pledge loyally. It is untrue that if the request had come from France, Belgium would have been more lenient. She would in the same way have endeavoured to prevent the French Army from breaking the terms of neutrality. Belgium has been called England's foster child, and England has certainly proved herself a good foster mother. My countrymen realize that England's word is her bond."

A DICTIONARY OF MILITARY TERMS

[COMPILED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.]

ACCOUTREMENTS.—Military dress and arms: equipment.

ADJUTANT.—An officer who assists the commanding officer of a regiment.

ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES.—Include the signal, medical, supplies, transport, ordnance, railways, works, veterinary and postal departments.

ADVANCED BASE.—The area within which are situated the advanced depots of ammunition, supplies, animals and material from which issues to field units are made.

AIDE-DE-CAMP.—An officer who assists the General.

ALIEN.—The legal term for a foreign resident in the United Kingdom. The Royal Proclamations, etc., describe the subjects of belligerent states, as "alien enemies," and require them to register themselves with the police authorities, under heavy penalties for neglect. British subjects may not harbour an unregistered "alien enemy." The Aliens Restriction Order of 1914 places alien enemies under certain disabilities in respect of the possession of firearms, motor-cars, motor-cycles, petrololium, and other articles. An alien may become a naturalized British subject.

AMBULANCE.—A moveable hospital—a conveyance of the wounded.

AMMUNITION.—Shot and shell.

ARMISTICE.—An interval of time agreed upon between belligerents for a temporary cessation of hostilities. Armistices may be general, local or partial. Compensation must be made for damage accidentally done during an armistice. No offensive measures are permitted, but sundry defensive acts may be carried out.

ARMOURY.—The place in which arms are kept.

ARMY consists of two or more Army Corps. Usually three to four Army Corps form an Army.

ARMY CORPS consists of two or three divisions, usually two active and one of reserve. The German Army Corps of two divisions has 41,000 men and a combatant strength of 26,900 rifles, 48 machine guns, 1,200 sabres, and 144 guns. The German Army Corps of three divisions is approximately 60,000 strong. The French and Russian Army Corps are practically the same.

ARMY COUNCIL.—A committee of experts under the presidency of the Secretary of State for War, which has the final disposition of the defences of the Empire. The Council consists of Lord Kitchener, Gen. Sir C. W. H. Douglas, Lt.-Gen. Sir H. C. Selater, Maj.-Gen. Sir J. S. Cowans, Col. Sir S. B. Von Donop, and the Rt. Hon. H. J. Tennant. Each service member is a specialist in some branch of military science, and has had practical experience in the field.

ARMY SERVICE CORPS.—A highly organized department of the army which attends to the transport of baggage and supplies, and also assists the medical service.

ARSENAL.—A magazine or manufactory of cannons, rifles and ammunition.

ARTILLERY.—Cannon, mortars, howitzers; the men who manage them. An artillery usually comprises the following:—

2 guns=1 section.

3 sections=1 battery of 6 guns. Strength 190 men.

3 batteries=1 brigade of Field Artillery. Strength 780 men.

2 Batteries=1 brigade of Horse Artillery. Strength 670 men.

6 inch Howitzer Battery=4 guns in 2 sections. Strength 180 men.

6 inch Howitzer Brigade=16 guns or 4 batteries. Strength 970 men.

4.5 inch Howitzer Battery=6 guns in sections. Strength 196 men.

4.5 inch Howitzer Brigade=18 guns. Strength 750 men.

ARTILLERY, FIELD.—A type of gun which can be used in any country without an excessive strain upon the horses. It consists usually of two patterns of weapons: (1) field guns proper, which are generally of 3 in. to 3.3 in. diameter or calibre, so mounted on their carriages that when fired they do not jump or move and thus require relaying, and (2) howitzers, which are short, squat guns that toss their projectiles high in the air. The diameter of howitzers and the weight of their shell or shrapnel are invariably greater than in the field gun proper. Field guns proper are furnished with shields to protect the men working them against bullets from the enemy's rifles and from his shrapnel. Their range varies from 5,500 to 9,000 yards. The British field gun fires a shell or shrapnel of about 18lb., the French one of 16lb., the German one of 15lb., the Russian of 14½lb., the Austrian one of 14½lb. The British field howitzer is 4.5 in. in diameter and fires a shell weighing 35lb.

ARTILLERY, HEAVY.—A heavier type of weapon than the field gun or field howitzer which can only be transported with some difficulty over good roads or hard ground. The British heavy artillery consists of four 60 pounder guns (i.e., guns firing a 60lb. shell) with each division. The diameter of the gun is 5 in. and the weight of the weapon is 39cwt.; it has a range of 10,000 yards. France has a short gun or howitzer designed by Commandant Rimailho of 6 in. diameter, firing a shell of about 94lb. weight. Only a very limited number of these guns were attached to the French army corps previous to the war; their disadvantage is their great weight, which is 47cwt. Their range is 7,000 yards. Germany has a 6 in. howitzer firing a shell of about 90lb. and weighing 53cwt.; she has also a 4 in. gun which fires a 30lb. shell but requires a specially prepared platform. The Russian army is also well equipped with heavy artillery in the shape of 4 in. guns and 6 in. howitzers.

ARTILLERY, HORSE.—A lighter type of gun than the field gun, specially designed for work with cavalry. In the field gun two of the gunners are seated on the carriage of the gun; in horse artillery all the gunners are mounted. The British horse artillery gun has a diameter of 3 in. and fires a shell or shrapnel weighing 12½lb.; there are 263 bullets in the shrapnel as against 375 in the field artillery projectile. The weight of the gun is 6cwt., against the 9cwt. of the field gun.

ARTILLERY, SIEGE.—A still heavier and larger type of gun than heavy field artillery, and is usually employed for reducing fortresses. The best-known German siege guns are the 8.2 in. howitzer, which fires a 250lb. shell and the 11in. howitzer which fires a shell of 750lb. weight. Howitzers of 12in. and 17in. diameter are said to have been employed by the German Army at Liege and Namur and against Verdun, firing shells of 880lb. and 2,000lb. Great Britain has a siege howitzer of 9.2in. diameter firing a shell of 380lb., and France a weapon of 10.7in. diameter, firing a shell of about 550lb. The Russian Army employs a 12in. siege howitzer firing a shell of 800lb.

ATTACHE.—One attached to a Commander's staff.

AUXILIARY (helping).—The Militia, Yeomanry, and Volunteers are the auxiliary forces.

BANDOLIER.—A leathern belt with small cases for cartridges.

BASE.—A place where the lines of communication originate, where magazines of stores for forces in the field are situated and maintained under direct military management and control and where the business of supplying these forces is located and organized under the military authorities.

BASE OF OPERATIONS.—The point from which an army begins its expedition. A base of supplies is the point from which an army gets its supplies.

BATTALION.—A military unit of about 1,000 infantry, with 96 commissioned and non-commissioned officers. It is commanded by a Lt-colonel, and divided into companies, each under a captain. A battalion is a self-contained tactical and administrative unit, with band and medical and ammunition services, etc., and the requisite number of horses.

BAYONET.—A steel weapon fitted to a rifle—first made at Bayonne in France.

BELEAGUERED.—Blockaded with an army so as to preclude escape.

BELLIGERENT.—A Power carrying on war.

BESIEGE.—Beset with armed forces.

BESIEGING A FORTRESS is the process of conducting operations for its capture by bombardment, mining, and other methods practised by military engineers.

BILLETING.—A legal process by which armed troops may be quartered in the houses of private persons.

RIVOUC (Biv-wak).—An encampment without tents.

BLACK WATCH.—The first of Highland regiments, created in 1668, and clothed in a dark tartan. It was reorganized in 1881. In former times membership was practically confined to certain clans having the same affinities.

BLOCKADE.—A means taken by a navy to prevent vessels reaching or leaving a port in war time without permission. A blockade runner is a vessel which eludes this process.

BOMBARDIER.—A skilled artillery man.

BOMBARDMENT.—An attack by artillery or naval guns upon a place fortified or unfortified.

BOMB-PROOF.—A shelter proof against penetration by shells.

BRIGADE can be Infantry, Cavalry, or Artillery. An Infantry Brigade in our army consists of four battalions each 1,000 strong. In most foreign armies it consists of two regiments each of six battalions. This infantry brigade has its medical and supply service besides machine guns; but it has no field artillery.

BRIGADE, ARTILLERY.—An artillery brigade consists of three batteries, howitzers or field guns, each

battery of six guns, with about 200 men. In France each battery has four guns.

BRIGADE, CAVALRY.—A Cavalry Brigade in our army consists of three regiments each of three field squadrons of approximately 150 men. Abroad it consists usually of two regiments each of five or six squadrons. With each cavalry brigade there are machine guns and a signal troop.

BRIGADIER.—An officer who has charge of a Brigade.

BULLET is usually of lead covered with nickel and of shape resembling an elongated half of an egg. In most modern rifles a "Spitze" or sharp-pointed bullet is used which is lighter than the blunt-nosed, old-fashioned bullet of longer range, and capable of greater penetration. The British bullet has a diameter of .303 in. and weighs in the older rifles 215 grains or half an ounce, in the newer about 160 grains. The German bullet has a diameter of .311in. and weighs 154 grains. The French bullet has a diameter of .315in. and weighs 195 grains; it is made of an alloy of copper and zinc and has no nickel case.

CALIBRE.—The diameter of the bore of a gun—thus a gun of 12 inches calibre has a bore 12 inches across, taking a 12 inches projectile. Calibre is used in plural to express the length of the gun; thus a phrase often heard is a "gun of forty or fifty calibres," which means that the length of the gun is forty or fifty times the diameter of the bore. Thus a 12 inches gun of fifty calibres, the type mounted in the British Dreadnoughts before the 13.5 inches gun was introduced, is a weapon fifty times 12 inches long, i.e., 50 ft. in length. The longer a gun is the greater is its power.

CAMPAIGN.—The period during which an army keeps the field.

CAPITULATION.—An agreement entered into between belligerents relating to the surrender of troops or fortresses. A surrender of territory is often called an evacuation. A capitulation must be confined to purely military matters, and its acceptance implies no final settlement of the points at issue.

CAPTAIN.—An officer who has charge of a company of soldiers. In the British Empire this rank denotes an officer of a warship carrying at least 20 guns. A captain in the Army commands a company of infantry, troop of cavalry, or battery of artillery. He ranks between a lieutenant and a major. He is responsible for the arms, clothes, efficiency and discipline of his men, and recommends for promotion the non-commissioned officers. A captain in the Navy receives from £411 to £802 per annum, with allowance and share of prize-money. An Army captain has, according to regiment, from £211 to £273.

CARTEL.—An agreement between belligerents to allow certain kinds of non-hostile intercourse, such as postal service, trade in certain commodities, etc. Strictly speaking a "cartel" is a document regulating an exchange of prisoners. A cartel ship carries such prisoners and is inviolate.

CARTRIDGE.—A case containing a charge of an explosive substance and bullet.

CASUALTIES.—Cases of death, injury or sickness.

CAVALRY.—Horse soldiers. In a cavalry, 2 Troops = 1 Squadron. Strength about 150 men. 4 Squadrons = 1 regiment. Strength about 530 men. Brigade = 3 cavalry regiments. Strength about 1,600 men.

Division.—4 Cavalry Brigades (with divisional artillery). Strength about 10,000 men.

CAVALRY DIVISION consists of two to four Brigades of Cavalry and one to four batteries of Horse Artillery, besides mounted engineers and auxiliary services. The normal foreign Cavalry Division has 4,500 men, and a combatant strength of 3,500 sabres, 12 guns, 8 machine guns.

CHAPLAIN.—A clergyman attached to the army, navy or public institution or family.

COLONEL.—An officer who has command of a regiment.

COLUMN.—Bodies of troops formed one in rear of another.

COMMANDANT.—A title usually given to a military officer in charge of a fortress, military station or military school. A captain-commandant is a captain who is temporarily doing duty of a higher rank.

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.—The Field-Marshal holding the highest position of all.

COMMISSARIAT.—The department which supplies provisions to an army.

COMMISSION.—The document by which an officer in the army or navy is authorized to exert his powers. It is signed in the name of the King, and formerly bore his actual signature.

COMMODORE.—A temporary rank in the Royal Navy between that of admiral and captain. He has usually charge of a few ships told off for a special service. It is sometimes a courtesy title of a senior captain. A first class commodore's pay is £1,095 a year.

COMMUNICATIONS.—The means of passing troops from place to place.

CONSCRIPTION.—A compulsory enrolment of men for military or naval service.

CONTRABAND OF WAR.—A term applied to various articles which are regarded as being of sufficient help to an enemy to prolong a war so that the transportation of such articles to him, especially by ships, is prohibited. Each nation has its own list of contraband articles. Great Britain distinguishes between absolute and conditional contraband, according to the text of an Order in Council relating to enemy merchant ships, and a Royal Proclamation specifies the articles to be treated as absolute contraband.

CORUITE.—The British explosive employed in guns and rifles.

CORPORAL.—A non-commissioned officer of the lowest rank in infantry regiments. In the Household Cavalry, a corporal is equivalent to "sergeant," the latter rank being unknown. A corporal wears as a badge two stripes on the left arm and receives from 1s. 9d. to 2s. 8d. a day.

CORPS (Kor).—A body of troops.

COSSACK POST.—A group of mounted men employed on outpost duty.

COUNCIL OF WAR.—A deliberation of staff officers in charge of a campaign. In modern times the real Councils of War do not meet on the field of battle, but are conducted at the War Office.

COURT-MARTIAL.—A court of military or naval officers.

CRUISER.—A term applied to war vessels built primarily for speed. They are divided into various classes and are either protected or unprotected. A battle cruiser is a fast boat whose armament is slightly inferior to those of the strongest battleships. See also **MERCHANT CRUISERS**.

CUIRASSIER.—A soldier who wears a cuirass or breastplate.

DEAD-GROUND.—Ground which is not covered by fire.

DECLARATION OF LONDON.—A document signed by Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria, Russia and other Powers in 1909 to place on record the principles of international law affecting maritime commerce, etc., in times of war. The chief points agreed upon had regard to:—Blockade, contraband, neutral service, destruction of neutral prizes, transfer to neutral flag, enemy character, convoy, resistance to search, compensation.

DE CODER.—A petty officer in the Royal Navy told off for the special duty of deciphering wireless messages.

DEPLOY.—To change formation from column into line.

DEPOT.—The headquarters of a regiment.

DESPATCHES.—Official messages.

DETACHMENT.—A body of troops detained for special service.

DISCIPLINE.—Order, training, military law.

DOUANE.—The French term for Customs House.

DRAGOON.—A soldier trained to serve either on horseback or on foot.

DRESSING STATION.—A place where the wounded are collected and attended to by the personal staff of a field ambulance.

DUM-DUM BULLETS are bullets with the lead uncovered at the nose of the projectile or with nicks cut in the nickel covering. The result of this is that the bullet on striking any object flattens out like a mushroom and inflicts an exceedingly severe wound. The name comes from Dum-Dum, an ammunition factory in India where these bullets were made for the special purpose of fighting against Pathans and other frontier tribes, whose vitality was such that the ordinary pattern of bullet failed to put them out of action on hitting. The dum-dum bullet under the laws of war may not be used in struggles between civilised Powers. The ordinary bullet can be converted into a dum-dum by cutting off the point.

DYNAMITE.—An explosive used in mining as well as in war.

ECHELON.—A formation of successive and parallel units facing in the same direction each on the flank of and to the rear of the units in front of it.

EMBRASURE.—A channel through the parapet of a fort through which the gun is fired.

ENFILADE-FIRE.—Fire which sweeps troops or defences from a flank.

ERROR OF THE DAY.—A term used in artillery practice to denote the amount of correction which must be made in the elevation of a big gun on account of the temperature of the atmosphere, the pressure of the barometer and the quality of the light. These calculations have been brought to such a pitch of perfection that the amount of error requiring correction after a trial shot at a distance of 6,000 yards may not amount to a few feet.

ESPIONAGE.—The act of spying upon an enemy. See **SPIES**.

EVACUATE.—To withdraw from, a town, fort or position.

EXPEDITIONARY.—Belonging to an expedition or force going away to accomplish some purpose.

EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.—A military unit consisting of a definite number of men, as organized in times of peace, which is ready for sending to foreign parts on the declaration of war. Such a force is adequately equipped with all stores and supplies.

FARRIER.—A smith who shoes horses.

FIELD-ARMY.—That portion of the army in the field not shut up in fortresses, coast defences or garrisons.

FIELD-MARSHAL.—An officer of the highest rank in the army.

FIELD UNITS.—Mobile units of the Field Army.

FIGHTING TROOPS consist of infantry, mounted infantry, cavalry, artillery, flying corps and engineers.

FLANK.—The right or left extremity of the front of an army. This is always a vulnerable point, unless it rests upon a strong fortress or some great natural obstacle such as a wide river. The Allies in the battle of the Marne rested their left on the fortress of Paris and their right on the fortress of Verdun. This rendered a German turning movement practically impossible.

FORCES IN THE FIELD.—The whole of the military forces mobilised in the theatre of operations under the command of the Commander-in-Chief.

FORCE MAJEUR.—Superior force: Compulsion.

FOREIGN LEGION.—A term given to military bands raised in Great Britain from among foreigners resident therein. Among these may be mentioned the King's Foreign Legion, organized by Chevalier Luigi Ricci, and the Foreign Legion raised by Captain Webber. Foreign legions of this kind were used by Garibaldi in 1866, and during the Franco-Prussian War.

FORTIFICATIONS.—The works erected to defend a place against attack.

FURLOUGH.—Leave of absence from service for a time.

FUSILIER.—An infantry soldier who wears a bearskin cap; formerly who was armed with a fusil.

GARRISON.—A body of troops in a fort or town to defend it against an enemy.

GENERAL.—The commander of an army or division of an army.

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS.—The headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief in the Field.

GENEVA CONVENTION.—A document signed in 1864, whereby civilized nations guaranteed the neutrality of all engaged in tending the sick and wounded in war time. See **R&D CROSS**.

GENEVA CROSS.—A red cross on a white ground, which by an international convention is recognized as a sign of the military medical and hospital service all over the world. The unauthorized use of the Geneva cross in any form is punishable in time of peace, and its misuse in time of war is held to place the misuser outside the pale of civilization. See **R&D CROSS**.

GRENADIER.—One of a regiment of footguards: formerly one who threw grenades.

GUARD.—A term usually applied to a small number of men under a non-commissioned officer to act as sentries. "Changing the Guard," is, in peace time, a picturesque ceremony, seen at its best at the Horse Guards, at Whitehall, S.W.

GUERRILLA.—A little war; one who carries on an irregular war.

GUERRILLA WARFARE.—This is a term applied to desultory methods employed by savage tribes or combats inhabiting a mountainous country.

GUNS are described either by the weight of shell they fire or the calibre, i.e., breadth of the bore. For instance, our field guns are known as 18 lbs. guns; this refers to the weight of their shell. On the other hand howitzers are known as 5 inch, 6 inch, or 8 inch and thus refer to the calibre of the gun. The essential difference between a field gun and a howitzer is that the former fires shrapnel shell with a flat trajectory, that is to say, as nearly as possible parallel to the ground; the howitzers fire a very heavy shell. It is short in length and its shell goes up very high in the air and descends at a steep angle. This enables it to fire on trenches hidden behind hills. The howitzer can fire either shrapnel or a shell filled with a high explosive such as lyddite. We also possess heavy batteries such as the guns firing 30 lbs. or 60 lbs. shells. These guns have a long range, 10,000 yards, and are used when the ordinary field gun cannot reach the target.

HAGUE TRIBUNAL.—A permanent international court consisting of the representatives of 41 nations, instituted at the suggestion of the Tsar of Russia and sitting at the Peace Palace at the Hague (Holland), built at the expense of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. Since 1902 several important matters have been laid before the Court and settled satisfactorily. In the event of the tribunal being called upon to hear a suit, it is necessary for the contending parties (A) to agree upon the subject-matter of dispute, (B) to appoint arbitrators, and, if necessary, an umpire, (C) to submit the case through counsel or agents. English and French are the languages used at the Court.

HAVERSACK.—A bag in which a soldier carries his rations.

HELIOGRAPH.—An instrument used for flashing signals when the sun is shining.

HONOURS OF WAR.—A term used in CAPITULATION (which see), by which surrendered troops are allowed to march out with colours displayed, drums beating, bayonets fixed and swords drawn.

HOSTAGES.—A person held by government or military authorities with a view to secure the due performance of some undertaking; or to whom personal violence is threatened if certain conditions are not fulfilled.

HOWITZER.—A short light cannon for throwing shells in a bombardment. Howitzers have recently been introduced and may be classed as *Light* and *Heavy* field howitzers. The former have calibres up to about 5 inches centimetres, and the latter up to 20 inches.

HOWITZERS, HEAVY are more powerful but not so mobile. They are only used in cases of absolute necessity for knocking down strong fortifications, etc.

INFANTRY.—Foot soldiers. A company = 1 sections of 25 men.

A battalion = 8 companies: or 4 double companies, Strength 1,000 men.

A brigade = 3 battalions. Strength 4,000 men.

A division = 3 Infantry Brigades. (With divisional artillery and mounted troops.) Strength 18,000 men.

Army Corps = 2 divisions.

INFANTRY DIVISION is the smallest tactical unit which possesses all arms. It is normally of 12 Battalions and has with it from 36 to 72 guns, besides field companies of engineers, medical supply, signal and transport services. The Cavalry with the division is usually two Squadrons, but in some cases more. The strength of a division is approximately 20,000 men.

INSURGENTS.—Those who rise in rebellion.

INVESTING a fortress is the process of completely surrounding it and cutting off the troops in it so that no supplies can reach it from outside. It can then be reduced by the process of starvation.

KHAKI.—A dust-coloured uniform worn particularly on active service.

LEGAL TENDER.—A term applied to the status of various kinds of coinage. When paying debts in peace time, gold and Bank of England notes are legal tender for every purpose and cannot be refused by creditors, except that no one can be compelled to give change. Silver in peace times is not a legal tender for sums over £2, nor is bronze for sums over 1s. On the proclamation of war the Government issued paper money which was made legal tender by Act of Parliament, and at the same time Postal Orders were made legal tender.

LEGION OF FRONTIERSMEN.—An irregular force of horsemen raised by Col. Driscoll, D.S.O., from among men who have seen active service in various parts of the British Empire, and especially on the frontiers. The headquarters is at 6, Adam Street, Strand, London, W.C. They have offered the services of 5,000 trained men for the war.

LEVÉE EN MASSE.—A levée is the collection of a body of men for compulsory military or other service in times of national emergency. It is usually restricted to a class, e.g., to men between certain ages, but in times of great danger, a *levée en masse* may be enforced, when all able-bodied men are required to serve in person, either for purposes of defence or offence.

LIEUTENANT.—An officer next below a Captain.

LINE.—The term applies to various phases of military operations. "Regiments of the line" are those which are kept in a high state of efficiency and usually ordered immediately to the front on proclamation of war. The honour of being on the "right of the line" in the British Army belongs to the Royal Regiment of Artillery. "Lines of communication" are guarded roads, usually railways, along which our reinforcements and supplies travel from the military bases to the fighting front. When an army cuts such a line of communication the belligerent army is seriously impeded. The lines of communications are often sea routes, as were often the case in the Peninsular War, when Wellington kept in touch with his base, i.e. England, by altering his disembarking points as he proceeded on the campaign. When an army is in camp the tents of the various regiments are arranged in "lines" across which the other regiments are not supposed to pass.

LINE OF COMMUNICATION.—The system of communication by rail road and navigable waterway between the army and its base.

LURNETLE.—A work consisting of four faces, with the two sides affording fire to the flanks.

LYDDITE.—An explosive made at Lydd in Kent. It is believed to be a mixture of fused picric acid and gun cotton, and is of a bright yellow colour. It is very safe to handle as it requires an extremely violent blow to detonate it; inside the charge of the shell is a powerful detonator. Melinite, used in the French Army and Navy, and Shimose, used in the Japanese services, are practically identical, and Turpinit, another French explosive, of which much has been heard recently, is very similar. All these preparations burn quietly when lighted.

MACHINE GUNS.—These are automatic guns with ballistic properties of the modern infantry rifle, and capable of delivering a heavy, rapid fire. The machine

gun can easily deliver 600 rounds per minute, while at the same time it has been designed to sweep simultaneously with its fire by means of a slowly acting traversing device for the barrel, a certain frontage of the target. Rifle cartridges are used which are fixed with great rapidity by mechanical means; the force of the recoil being used for reloading the gun. The guns are very portable.

MAJOR.—An officer next below a Colonel.

MANŒUVRE.—A movement in naval or military tactics.

MARTIAL LAW.—A code of procedure by which all the ordinary functions of police and magistrates are exercised by military authorities. Martial law must be duly proclaimed by legal processes, and when it is proclaimed the martial authorities are in supreme command of the proclaimed districts and may take any means whatever that are justifiable to secure the success of military operations, the passage of troops, the protection of a district, and the peaceable behaviour of citizens. Under martial law offenders may be shot. The defence of the Realm Act which was passed by Parliament since the declaration of war constitutes a modified form of martial law, giving the military authorities ample powers to conduct military operations, but not at the same time abrogating the common-law rights of citizens.

MASKING a fortress or an army in a fortress consists in keeping the garrison of the fortress or the army under such close observation that it cannot leave the fortress without being attacked.

MERCENARIES.—Soldiers who serve foreigners for the sake of pay.

MERCHANT CRUISERS.—A commercial vessel, usually an Atlantic liner, which, in return for a subsidy granted to the owner for carrying the British mails, is held at the disposition of the Admiralty for hire or purchase in time of war. When taken over by Government they are converted into "armed cruisers" and mainly used as transports for troops.

MILITIA.—A body of citizen soldiers who do not serve permanently in time of peace.

MINE ON LAND.—A charge of high explosive buried in the ground and arranged so as to explode when the enemy's troops are over it.

MINE-LAYERS.—A term used to describe a ship, not necessarily built for naval purposes, which carries a cargo of explosive floating mines and disposes of them at various points in the vicinity of harbours and in shallow seas. These mines are so constructed that they explode on coming into contact with a vessel. These acts of hostility are circumvented by means of mine trawlers specially commissioned by the British Admiralty for purposes of sweeping the seas where mines are suspected to be laid.

MINE SUBMARINE consists of a steel receptacle containing a powerful charge of high explosive, usually from 300lb. to 1,000lb. of gun cotton moored or drifting below or on the surface of the water. There are several types of mine. The best known are contact mines, such as have been scattered by the Germans in the North Sea. These are anchored by a cable to a weight at the bottom of the sea and so arranged as to remain some 9ft. or 10ft. below the surface whatever the state of the tide. They are exploded when a ship strikes against them, the blow either firing a detonator or causing the ignition of the charge by chemical action—breaking a tube containing sulphuric acid which fires small quantity of chlorate of potash. A different

type of mine is used for the defence of harbours, and is fired by electricity from the shore when an enemy's ship is above them. A map of the minefield, or system of mines, is placed in the firing station and the position of the ship is shown on it by a camera-obscure. The observer in the station watches and presses the key which completes the circuit when the enemy's vessel is over the mine.

MOBILIZATION.—The process by which an army or navy is converted from a peace to a war footing. The visible sign of mobilization is the calling out of reservists. A well organized force is always ready for rapid mobilization, and not only has the means at hand for summoning men to their regiments or ships, but provides for them clothing, feeding, etc. Mobilization also includes the carrying out of definite plans relating to the disposition of men and ships all carefully thought out in advance. Partial mobilizations, conducted under another guise, are often conducted in times of peace; but complete mobilization of Russian troops was the nominal cause of Germany declaring war against Russia.

MORALE.—A term applied to the spirit that animates an army, the sum total of the psychology of each soldier composing it. Morale may be determined by an initial success or failure, and its quality may be a deciding factor in the outcome of a war.

MORATORIUM.—A legalized process announced by Royal Proclamation by which the acceptors of bills of exchange are absolved from meeting them when they become due, during the term of the moratorium. On the suspension of the London Stock Exchange, due to the declaration of war, a short Act of Parliament was put through with the design of affording substantial relief in regard to a great number of financial obligations.

MORTARS are heavy siege artillery of a calibre which is much larger than a howitzer and are used against the strongest works of the enemy, such as modern large fortresses and against guns protected by armour.

MUSKETRY.—Discharge of a number of muskets (firearms).

NATURALIZATION.—The process by which a claim is made to the possession of British citizenship. Persons are deemed to be British subjects if born in His Majesty's dominions, whether of British or of Foreign parents, or if children or grandchildren of natural-born British subjects, wherever born. The ordinary way of becoming a British subject is by fulfilling the requirements of the "Naturalization Act, 1870." The applicant must either have resided in the United Kingdom for a term of not less than five years, or have been in the service of the Crown for a similar period. He must also furnish evidence of his intention, when naturalized, either of residing in the United Kingdom, or of serving under the Crown. All applications for certificates of naturalization should be addressed to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

NEGOTIATIONS.—Proposals for peace or settlement.

NEUTRALITY.—When a nation is at war it is obligatory for the belligerent parties to notify all other Powers that they are engaged in hostilities. And it is the duty of such Powers, not taking part in the war, immediately to issue a proclamation of neutrality, warning their citizens that no assistance must be given to belligerents. The ships of neutral nations are entitled to go about their business in the usual way provided

they are not carrying contraband of war (see **CONTRABAND**) but they are liable to be searched by belligerent ships. Belligerent ships may not be fitted out in neutral waters, but if they are driven by force of circumstances in a neutral harbour they may be supplied with sufficient coal to enable them to proceed on their voyage, but they must leave a neutral port within 24 hours or be "interned" for the rest of the war. If combatants seek refuge or accidentally enter neutral territory they also must be interned.

NITRO-CELLULOSE.—A preparation of gun-cotton, the explosive used in guns in the German Navy.

NON-COMBATANT.—A term applied to civilians, men, women, and children, who do not take an active part in war, and who, if found by an enemy engaged in peaceful occupation and not in possession of arms, are entitled to the elementary rights of protection according to the established usages of civilized warfare. International Law guarantees them their lives and property, and that they shall not be required to take part in the military operations of the enemy. They are liable to provide supplies (which will be paid for by receipt), they may be called upon to act as guides, and they may be required to do services for enemy outside their ordinary work. They are under martial law, and any disobedience is punishable with death.

OBJECTIVE, in strategy, is the town, fortress, arsenal or other object aimed at, the occupation of which is deemed to have a decisive effect. In 1870 Paris was the objective of the Germans, and Berlin the objective of the French.

ORDNANCE.—Heavy weapons of warfare. (See **Artillery**.)

PANOPLY.—Armament: a full suit of defensive armour.

PARLIAMENTAIRE.—An unarmed person deputed to approach the enemy under a flag of truce, accompanied by a bugler and interpreter, to open negotiations, or deliver a message. A parlementaire's person is inviolate but if he should be accidentally injured, it is at his own risk.

PAROLE.—A promise by a prisoner not to escape.

PASSEPORT.—A document issued by a military commander authorizing an enemy subject to travel unmolested within the district occupied by his forces.

PATROL.—A small body of men, usually cavalry, sent out for the purpose of gaining general information as to the presence of the enemy and the nature of the surrounding country.

PRISONER OF WAR.—The term applied to combatants and non-combatants of the enemies' nationality who are either taken in the field of battle, or are arrested under various circumstances. A large number of German and many Austrians have been arrested in Great Britain and detained as prisoners of war on the ground that they were reservists about to proceed to join the enemies' forces.

PRIVATE.—A common soldier of the lowest rank.

PRIZE COURT.—A court organized in connection with the Admiralty Division of the High Court of Justice to condemn as prizes any enemies' ships taken in warfare. The Court hears evidence as to the capture and nationality of the ship, and orders its cargo to be disposed of under the rules of equity, innocent third parties owning such cargo not forfeiting their rights. The value of the ship, when finally disposed of, becomes "prize money," and is divided amongst those who assisted at its capture.

PUNITIVE.—Pertaining to punishment.

RECONNAISSANCE.—The examination of tract of country: a warlike movement.

RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE.—An advance of a considerable body of troops detached from a main army with a view to discover the enemy's position, or with the purpose of misleading him.

RECONNOITRE.—To examine or watch the position, force, etc., of an enemy.

RECONNOITRING.—The military technical name for scouting. A reconnoitring party is sent out for the purpose of gathering information, and its business is to return with the information without having revealed its presence to the enemy.

RECRUIT.—A newly enlisted soldier.

RED CROSS SOCIETY.—An organization embodying under one name and administration a number of hitherto separate societies formed in 1905. It can call upon 80,000 persons, many of them highly trained, to undertake field ambulance and hospital work. The British Red Cross Society does not exist to take upon itself the whole work of administering to the sick and wounded. It is purely a contributory body. In time of war it would act under the directions of the Admiralty and the War Office, and its activities are limited by the nature of the war and of the climatic conditions under which it is being fought. The British Red Cross Society is recognized by the War Office and the Admiralty as the organization responsible for the Red Cross Movement throughout the British Empire, and the terms of the arrangement between the heads of the Services and the Society are included in "Field Service Regulations." Office, 9, Victoria Street, London S.W.

REDOUT.—A field-work entirely enclosed by a defensible parapet.

REFUGEES.—Persons who flee for refuge from the theatre of war.

REGIMENT.—A body of soldiers under a Colonel; some regiments have five or six battalions.

REGULARS.—Soldiers belonging to the regular or standing army.

REINFORCEMENTS.—Additional troops to strengthen an army.

REVEILLE.—The beat of drum at dawn to rouse soldiers.

RICOCHET (rik-o-sha).—Rebound or skipping of a bullet along the ground.

RIFLE.—The modern rifle has a range of about 2,500 yards (i.e., can hit with effect at that distance). The British rifle is the Lee-Enfield, the latest pattern of which weighs 8lb. 10oz. The barrel is 26in. long and the rifling has seven grooves. The magazine from which the weapon is re-loaded by pulling a lever will hold ten cartridges. The German rifle is the Mauser of 311 in. diameter and weighs 9lb. The rifling consists of four grooves. The French magazine will hold five cartridges. The rifle is the Lebel and weighs 9lb. 3 oz. The rifling has four grooves. The magazine is contained in a tube under the barrel and will hold eight cartridges. The Russian rifle is the Nagant "three line" and weighs 9lb. The rifling has four grooves and the magazine will hold five cartridges. The Austrian rifle is the Mannlicher of 315 in. diameter, weighing 8lb. 5 oz. Serbia employs a pattern of Mauser rifle of 276 in. diameter with a magazine holding five cartridges. The development of the rifle will in future be towards making it automatic which would result in a very much

greater rapidity of fire. Recent experiments have proved that 100 rounds a minute can be fired with such a rifle.

SABRE.—A heavy sword slightly curved, used by cavalry.

SCOUT.—A soldier specially trained to act on his own initiative and sent out to gather useful information.

SERGEANT.—A non-commissioned officer next in rank above the corporal; he instructs the recruits, from ranks, etc.

SERGEANT-MAJOR.—A non-commissioned officer who assists the adjutant in battalion matters.

SHAKS.—A kind of military cap. The helmet succeeded it in the British army.

SHELL.—A hollow case of steel or iron containing a charge of explosive, usually lyddite or powder. The charge of explosive is fired in one of two ways—either by a percussion fuse, which is detonated when the nose of the shell strikes some object, whether the ground, the water, the wall of a building, or the shield of an enemy's gun; or by the shock of the discharge of the gun and which burns for a certain number of seconds or fractions of a second and then explodes the charge. The time fuse contains a pellet which is jerked forward as the gun is fired; it strikes a tiny detonator, the heat generated by which ignites a length of slow-burning composition, and this after a certain lapse of time fires the powder or lyddite in the shell. There is a safety contrivance in all fuses to prevent any risk of the shell being exploded if it is accidentally dropped. Shells vary in weight according to the calibre or diameter of gun from which they are fired and according to the pattern of gun. Thus the British field gun with a calibre of 3.3 inches fires a shell of 18lb., the British 6in. gun a shell of 100lb., the British 12in. gun a shell of 850lb., and the British 13.5in. gun a shell of either 1,250lb. or 1,400lb.

SHRAPNEL.—A shell filled with bullets, named after its inventor, General Henry Shrapnel, of the British Royal Artillery. Shrapnel are shells with exceedingly thin walls containing a large number of bullets. The number in the British field gun is 375, in the British horse artillery gun 263, in the French and German field guns 300, in the Russian field gun 260. There is a small charge of powder in the shrapnel which is exploded in exactly the same way as in the shell. This charge of powder is fired when the shrapnel is some distance in front of the target. The explosion shatters the thin steel case, when the bullets fly forward with the velocity with which the shrapnel was travelling and scatter over a considerable area. The effect is very similar to that of a shot gun at 30 or 40 yards, but the effective range of shrapnel is 3,000, 4,000 or 5,000 yards and sometimes even more. Hence shrapnel are deadly against troops in the open or when badly entrenched.

SKIRMISH.—A slight fight; a preliminary combat.

SPIES.—A relative term interchangeable with Scout (which see). Spies, however, are known to be sent by enemies in preparation of war, and may be years before the outbreak of hostilities. Spies captured in peace time are liable to penal servitude; in war time, they are liable to be shot.

SQUAD.—The half of a section or a small number of men.

SQUADRON.—A body of cavalry comprising two companies or troops.

ST. JOHN AMBULANCE BRIGADE.—An organization for giving first aid to the injured. The brigade has

4,150 members mobilized, while there is roll of 2,000 men waiting to sign at a moment's notice.

STRATEGY.—Science of directing great military movements. It is the management of the movements of an army or a number of armies preceding the actual battle. The aim in modern strategy is to destroy or capture the main armed forces of the enemy, after which his fortresses can be reduced and his territory seized and held to ransom.

SUBALTERN.—A commissioned officer below the rank of Captain.

TACTICS is the management of an army or a group of armies in the battle. The aim in tactics is to concentrate superior force on some part of the enemy's army, thus shattering it and causing general demoralisation; to work round one of the enemy's flanks, thus turning his force and threatening his supplies and communications; or to break through the enemy's front and roll up the two halves of his army.

THEATRE OF OPERATIONS.—The whole area of land or sea in which fighting may be expected.

TORPEDO.—A cigar shaped steel vessel containing in the head or front part, a powerful charge of gun-cotton, and an engine driven by compressed air working two screws. There is a rudder actuated by a gyroscope which prevents the torpedo from deviating from the direction in which it is fired. The torpedo is discharged from a kind of gun in the ship, known as a torpedo tube, either by compressed air or by a small charge of explosive, and the tube may be placed either above water, as in destroyers and many small cruisers, or under water, as in all submarines and modern battle-ships. Torpedoes are of many different patterns, speeds and sizes; the oldest in use in the British Navy are 14in in diameter and have a range of 800 yards, and a charge of 77lb. of gun-cotton in the head; the newest are 21in. in diameter, have a range of 7,000 yards and carry a charge of about 300lb. It takes about four minutes from the moment when it is fired to reach the target at this range. The power of the engines is increased by a system of heating the compressed air supplied to the engine. The weight of these big 21in. torpedoes is about 28 cwt., the length 24ft. In the German Navy the older torpedoes are of 14in. and 17 7/16 in. diameter; the latest in actual use is a 20lb. pattern with 200in. of explosive in the head.

TRANSPORT.—The equipment of an army which attends to the carrying of supplies to the front and the bringing of the wounded to the rear. A vessel carrying troops is also called a transport.

TRENCH.—An excavation which is for use either as a use for concealment or protection or both.

TRINITROTOLUOL or "T. N. T.", the German high explosive is similar in its composition to picric acid (*i.e.*, it is prepared by treating some carbon compound with nitric acid), and it has the peculiar qualities of lyddite and melinite, in that it requires to be violently detonated and to be enclosed in some strong body, such as a steel case, to produce much effect.

TROOP.—A sub-division of a Squadron corresponding to a section of the Infantry.

TROOPER.—The title of a horseman in the cavalry, and equivalent to "Private" in infantry regiments.

TRUCE, FLAG OF.—A white flag which is used in warfare as a sign that the person showing it wishes to make an authorized communication with the enemy. Bearers of such flags, who may be accompanied by a hqngler and an interpreter, must be courteously received and treated. They may be blindfolded and detained pending the preparation of a reply.

ULTIMATUM.—Final conditions; or terms offered as a basis of a treaty.

UNIFORM.—The dress (of one kind) which distinguishes regiments, sailors, policemen, etc.

VALISE.—A small case containing clothes, etc.

VEDETTE.—A sentinel on horse-back.

VETERAN.—One who has had long experience of war.

VOLUNTARY.—Proceeding from choice or free will.

VOLUNTEERS.—Civilians who enter military service voluntarily.

WAR CRIME.—A technical expression for the violation, by soldiers or civilians, of the recognized rules of warfare, illegitimate hostilities, espionage and marauding. Instances are: the use of forbidden weapons, killing the wounded, abuse of a flag of truce, abuse of the Red Cross badge, poisoning water supply, looting, etc. Certain civil offences become war crimes during hostilities. Summary execution or punishment of such offenders is prohibited. They must be duly tried and convicted.

WARRANT OFFICER.—An officer in the Army or Navy who is between the rank of a commissioned and non-commissioned officer. He wears a sword, but is not entitled to a salute.

WARRIORS.—Soldiers, especially good soldiers.

YEOMANRY.—A body of voluntary cavalry at first entirely composed of yeoman or freeholders.

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The Late Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale

BY MR. G. A. NATESAN.

A strong and pure light is gone out, the radiance of a clear vision and a beneficent purpose. One of those high and most worthy spirits who rise from time to time to stir their generation with new mental impulses in the deeper things, has perished from among us." On the evening of Thursday the 18th, the papers announced the telegraphic message, that the Hon. Mr. Gokhale had been suddenly taken ill with cordiae asthma, and that he had to cancel his trip to Delhi to attend the meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council. The morning dawned with the news that he had passed away. With it began the terrible gloom over the country from which it has not yet fully recovered. It is now 14 years since the cruel hand of Death removed from our midst the late Mr. Justice Ranade, who was by common consent, "one of the foremost men of modern times in India. His great intellect, his profound learning, his prodigious industry, his deep devotion to the highest interests of his countrymen--these, joined to his inflexible integrity, his entire freedom from prejudice and the rare simplicity and grandeur of his soul, gave him a position in the country which was perfectly unique; and for the life-time of a generation and more he was the trusted guide and counsellor of his countrymen, and exercised unrivalled influence over their thoughts and activities. It was no wonder, therefore, that when he passed away, his death was felt throughout India to be a great national calamity, and high and low, rich and poor, Europeans and Indians, members of all classes and different communities drew together in a common grief to mourn his loss." There was however at that time some consolation in the

thought that under the guidance of that "choice and master spirit of the age"—Mr. Ranade,—had been reared up a ~~Siksha~~ worthy of his great and honoured Guru. Those that consoled and comforted themselves that in Mr. Gokhale, Ranade had left his greatest legacy and his greatest memorial, are destined to go in mourning once more. We shall no longer behold that benign countenance beaming with smile and affection. Not only the public in India, but even those in England and South Africa who had listened to his discourses will miss for ever the moral fervour and the soul-stirring eloquence of this singularly self-sacrificing patriot, who "mused by day and dreamt by night" for the welfare of his country.

It is impossible within the limited space of an obituary notice to adequately give expression to the feelings of genuine and profound sorrow which the news of the premature death of Mr. Gokhale has caused throughout the land of his birth, and the sorrow with which the sad tidings has been received in Great Britain, and in South Africa, the scene of his latest labours for the cause of his suffering countrymen. The story of his brilliant and unique career is thus briefly told :—

The Hon. Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale was born at Kolhapur in the year 1868. His parents were poor, but had him educated in the local College. After passing the Intermediate Examination, he took the B. A. course principally in the Elphinstone College of Bombay and partly in the Deccan College of Poona. As a student he was known for a high degree of ability, a strong memory and steady application. He took his Degree of B.A. in 1884 in the University of Bombay, of which University he subsequently became a Fellow. Almost immediately afterwards he began to devote himself to the cause of education. For 20 years he served as a lecturer at the Fergusson College, Poona,

specialising particularly in history and economics, a subject into which he threw himself with so much fervour and zeal that he became an acknowledged authority, at the same time giving much of his time to establishing the college on a sound financial basis. During this period of his life he began to take a prominent part in public life and was for four years Secretary to the Provincial Congress of Bombay. In 1897 he was one of the Joint Secretaries of the Indian National Congress and continued for many years to labour in that capacity. In 1897 he went to England as one of the witnesses before the Royal Commission on Indian Expenditure, and gave evidence, which was of very great importance and value. In 1900 he was elected a member of the Bombay Legislative Council, and in 1902 he was elected representative of the Bombay Council on the Imperial Legislative Council. This office he continued to hold until the date of his death. In 1904 he was made a Companion of the Most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire. In 1905 he was President of the Indian National Congress, and in the same year founded the Ranade Economic Institute and the Society of the Servants of India. Later on he paid several visits to England and toiled ceaselessly for the various causes he had so much at heart, and he took a quiet but active part in the conversations that led up to the reform of his and the other Indian councils. Finally in 1912 he was appointed a member of the Royal Commission on Public Services in India.

While he was strenuously engaged in the work of the Public Services Commission, the sorrows and sufferings of his countrymen in South Africa which had reached a climax, drew forth from Mr. Gokhale all that was best and noblest in him. It is pathetic to contemplate that at a time when his health was a matter of great concern to him and to all who knew him, Mr. Gokhale threw himself heart and soul into the South African Indian problem and made from time to time stirring appeals to his countrymen to give all moral and pecuniary support to the cause. His trip to South Africa undertaken at a time when his medical advisers had advised him to take rest was attended with splendid results. And as Lord Hardinge himself publicly acknowledged the other day, "it was largely due to him and his tactful and statesmanlike attitude that this thorny question eventually received a satisfactory solution."

It is also well-known that it is only six months ago that H. M. the King Emperor on the recommendation of His Excellency the Viceroy and the Secretary of State for India, wanted to bestow on him the title of 'The Knight Commander of the Indian Empire' as a mark of recognition of his great and valuable public services. With his characteristic modesty Mr. Gokhale declined it.

As already indicated Mr. Gokhale's career is one of renunciation pure and simple. In joining the Fergusson College at the age of 19 after a brilliant career in the University, for little more

than a subsistence "he undertook to devote his great talent and youthful energy to the education of his countrymen." He performed the task which he had voluntarily undertaken with a fervour and enthusiasm which was his own. Indeed, he gloried in the work of that great institution. For according to him the principal moral interest of it is in the fact that "it represents an idea and embodies an ideal. The idea is that Indians of the present day can, bind themselves together, and putting aside all thoughts of worldly interest work for a secular purpose with the zeal and enthusiasm which we generally find in the sphere of religion alone." For twenty long years he delighted in his mission as school master, bearing in mind the highest traditions of the honourable calling of the teacher in ancient India.

The year 1902 will always be reckoned as the most memorable in the history of modern India. It was the year in which Mr. Gokhale having fulfilled his vow, severed his connection with the Fergusson College and launched himself on his career of the greater renunciation—the dedication of the rest of his life to the political regeneration of his motherland. In his pathetic farewell to the Fergusson College Mr. Gokhale explained the motives which prompted him to launch himself "on the stormy and uncertain sea of public life":—

"Here I am with a settled position in this college and having for my colleagues, men with whom it is a pleasure and a privilege to work, and whose generosity in over-looking my many faults and magnifying any little services I may have rendered, has often touched me deeply. And yet, I am giving up all this to embark on the stormy and uncertain sea of public life. But I hear within me a voice which urges me to take this course, and I can only ask you to believe me when I say that it is purely from a sense of duty to the best interests of our country, that I am seeking this position of greater freedom, but not necessarily of less responsibility. Public life in this country has few rewards and many trials and discouragements. The prospect of work to be done is vast, and no one can say what is on the other side—how all this work may end. But one thing is clear. Those who feel in the matter as I do must devote themselves to the work in a spirit of hope and faith and seek only the satisfaction which comes of all disinterested exertions."

What was for the moment an irreparable loss to the Deccan Education Society proved in the end the greatest gain for the country at large.

We might here fittingly refer to the first great opportunity afforded to Mr. Gokhale by the generous and farseeing leaders of public opinion in Bombay in selecting him as the representative of the Presidency to give

evidence before the Royal Commission on Indian Expenditure presided over by Lord Welby. It was at the age of 31 that Mr. Gokhale had to discharge the responsible task of being a leading witness before an important Royal Commission. How well he acquitted himself in cross-examination and what a tremendous impression he made on the minds of the members of the Commission and of those who read his evidence is now a matter of history.

From that moment Mr. Gokhale became an acknowledged and accredited representative of India's hopes and aspirations. Patriotic in the truest sense of the term and keenly sensitive to the wrongs and disabilities to which his countrymen were subjected at the hands of the authorities, especially in the matter of rising to the highest offices in the land, Mr. Gokhale with the fearless independence that has ever been characteristic of him made one of the most telling indictments against the policy of the bureaucracy. Here is his protest:—

A kind of dwarfing or stunting of the Indian race is going on under the present system. We must live all the days of our life in an atmosphere of inferiority, and the tallest of us must bend, in order that the exigencies of the system may be satisfied. The upward impulse, if I may use such an expression, which every school boy at Eton or Harrow may feel, that he may one day be a Gladstone, a Nelson, or a Wellington and which may draw forth the best efforts of which he is capable, that is denied to us. The full height to which our manhood is capable of rising can never be reached by us under the present system. The moral elevation which every self-governing people feel cannot be felt by us. Our administrative and military talents must gradually disappear, owing to sheer disuse till at last our lot, as hewers of wood and drawers of water in our own country, is stereotyped.

Three years later, in the Imperial Legislative Council, by a series of disingenuous calculations Lord Curzon tried to demonstrate to the public that the British Government had admitted Indians to the highest ranks of its service "with unexampled liberality." Not content with producing a set of figures which were inaccurate and misleading, the Viceroy had the hardihood to suggest publicly that Indians were to be excluded from some of the highest offices in the State on account of their race. Mr. Gokhale so sensitive to unjust and undeserved criticism of his countrymen felt it keenly and entered the following protest:—

My Lord, this question of appointment to high office is to us something more than a mere question of careers. When all the positions of power, and of official trust and responsibility are the virtual monopoly of a class, those who are outside that class are constantly weighed down with a sense of their own inferior position, and the tallest of them have no option but to bend in order that the exigencies of the situation may be

satisfied. Such a state of things, as a temporary arrangement, may be accepted as inevitable. As a permanent arrangement, it is impossible. This question thus is to us a question of national prestige and self-respect, and we feel that our future growth is bound up with a proper solution of it.....

A succession of great statesmen, who in their day represented the highest thought and feeling of England, have declared that, in their opinion, England's greatest work in India is to associate the people of this country, slowly it may be, but steadily, with the work of their own Government. To the extent to which this work is accomplished, will England's claim to our gratitude and attachment be real. If, on the other hand, this purpose is ever lost sight of or repudiated, much good work, which has been already done, will be destroyed, and a position created which must fill all true well-wishers of both England and India with a feeling of deep anxiety.

All India therefore learnt with joy that when the Public Services Commission was constituted in 1912 Mr. Gokhale was appointed as one of its members. The entire country was looking forward with interest to the recommendations of the Public Services Commission and to the great and strenuous efforts he would undoubtedly have made to see that his countrymen are afforded all possible opportunities to enable them "to rise to the full height of their stature and be in their country what other people are in theirs." And it is most melancholy to contemplate that before the recommendations of the Commission have been finally shaped, death has snatched away so suddenly the great soul that had for long years so nobly and so heroically fought for equality and justice to his countrymen.

We pass on now perhaps to the greatest field of his public services,—the period of his office as the honoured representative of the people in the Imperial Legislative Council. There was no subject concerning the welfare and prosperity of his countrymen which Mr. Gokhale did not impress upon the attention of that body. And he touched nothing which he did not adorn. The poor peasant, the impoverished ryot, and the much abused educated Indian, all alike claimed his unceasing attention. To mention only the many problems he tried to tackle within the short period of his office would take a paragraph by itself. He condemned strongly the growth of military expenditure which was out of all proportion to the benefits the country had derived from it; he insisted with considerable warmth on greater expenditure on irrigation; he advocated strongly a reduction of the State demand on land; he worked for the reduction of the salt-tax; he pleaded eloquently for an experiment in a limited area at least for some scheme of composition for enabling

the ryots to pay off their debts; he asked for the establishment of Agricultural Banks like those of Lord Cromer in Egypt, for improvement in scientific agriculture, for the promotion of industrial and technical education, and for a great scheme of sanitary reform which would ensure a proper system of water-supply and drainage not only to cities and towns but to the villages as well. He urged more than once the desirability of permitting—aye, inviting—carefully selected classes from among the children of the soil to share in the responsibilities of National Defence.

Among the many retrograde measures of the Curzonian regime the Indian Universities Bill was one. Its introduction created great distrust and indignation throughout the country. Mr. Gokhale, himself one of the class of the much abused and “discontented B.A.’s,” felt that the bill was a veiled attempt to check the progress of higher education and put back the hands of the clock. At the first meeting in which the Bill was introduced, Mr. Gokhale exposed the error of the policy which prompted the Viceroy to usher his favourite measure. He said:—

Let not Government imagine that, unless the education imparted by Colleges is the highest which is at the present day possible, it is likely to prove useless and even pernicious; and secondly, let not the achievements of our graduates in the intellectual field be accepted as the sole, or even the most important, test to determine the utility of this education. I think, my Lord—and this is a matter of deep conviction with me—that, in the present circumstances of India, *all* Western education is valuable and useful. If it is the highest that under the circumstances is possible, so much the better. But even if it is not the highest, it must not on that account be rejected. I believe the life of a people—whether in the political or social or industrial or intellectual field—is an organic whole, and no striking progress in any particular field is to be looked for, unless there be room for the free movement of the energies of the people in all fields. To my mind, the greatest work of Western education in the present state of India is not so much the encouragement of learning as the liberation of the Indian mind from the thralldom of old world ideas, and the assimilation of all that is highest and best in the life and thought and character of the West. For this purpose not only the highest but *all* Western education is useful. I think Englishmen should have more faith in the influence of their history and their literature. And whenever they are inclined to feel annoyed at the utterances of a discontented B.A., let them realize that he is but an accident of the present period of the transition in India, and that they should no more lose faith in the results of Western education on this account than should my countrymen question the ultimate aim of British rule in this land, because not every Englishman who comes out to India realizes the true character of England’s mission here.

The bill was passed and it soon became law but

the country was deeply grateful to Mr. Gokhale for his valiant fight.

The greatest scheme on which he had set his heart was the carrying through the Imperial Council, of a measure for the promotion of free and compulsory education throughout the country. In 1911 he introduced in the Viceroyal Council his celebrated Elementary Education Bill. In a historic speech full of facts and figures Mr. Gokhale pressed the case for his Bill and wound up with the following magnificent peroration:—

My Lord, one great need of the situation, which I have ventured again and again to point out in this Council for several years past, is that the Government should enable us to feel that, though largely foreign in personnel, it is national in spirit and sentiment; and this it can only do by undertaking towards the people of India all those responsibilities, which national Governments in other countries undertake towards their people. We, too, in our turn, must accept the Government as a national Government, giving it that sense of security which national Governments are entitled to claim, and utilising the peace and order, which it has established, for the moral and material advancement of our people. And of all the great national tasks which lie before the country, and in which the Government and the people can co-operate to the advantage of both, none is greater than this task of promoting the universal diffusion of education in the land, bringing by its means a ray of light, a touch of refinement, a glow of hope into lives that sadly need them all. The work, I have already said, is bound to be slow, but that only means that it must be taken in hand at once. If a beginning is made without further delay, if both the Government and the people persevere with the task in the right spirit, the whole problem may be solved before another generation rises to take our place. If this happens, the next generation will enter upon its own special work with a strength which will be its own security of success. As for us, it will be enough to have laboured for such an end—laboured even when the end is not in sight. For, my Lord, I think there is not only profound humility but also profound wisdom in the faith which says:—

“I do not ask to see the distant scene:
One step enough for me.”

Permission to introduce this Bill was given and the country enthusiastically supported Mr. Gokhale’s proposal. Encouraged by it, on the 18th March 1912, he moved for referring the Bill to a Select Committee. The opposition of the Provincial Governments to the Bill was strong and frightfully discouraging. Mr. Gokhale thoroughly exposed the hollowness of the objections urged against his measure. But not all his eloquence, not all his sweet reasoning and persuasiveness could break up the stone wall of opposition. The Resolution of Mr. Gokhale was negatived by a majority of 25 votes. But the moral victory lay with him.

Mr. Gokhale's budget speeches in the Imperial Legislative Council might be regarded as models of what they ought to be. Even a casual perusal of them will give the reader a clear grasp of the intricate and complicated subject of Indian Finance in all its aspects. With a clearness and lucidity in handling statistics which was Mr. Gokhale's peculiar forte, he exposed the fiction of surpluses as a grievous burden on the taxpayer.

In presenting the budget for 1905 the Finance Minister had shown a surplus of 5½ crores. It was the seventh successive year in which such a large surplus had been realised by the Government of India. After a most patient and careful study of India's finances for many of the previous years, Mr. Gokhale came to the inevitable conclusion, that the system of finance then pursued was "unsound in theory and indefensible in practice."

In all countries, it is an accepted canon of finance that the weight of public burdens should be kept as light as possible, and that the scheme of taxation should be so fixed and adjusted as to meet, but no more than meet, public requirements under normal conditions. If this is so in rich European countries, it should be much more so in India, where the revenue is raised from a poor, helpless population, and the larger part is contributed by a broken and exhausted peasantry. * *

In a magnificent speech delivered at the Bombay Congress in 1904 he referred to the subject of surpluses with considerable feeling.

This plethora of money at the disposal of the Government makes an irresponsible administration still more irresponsible. * * * These surpluses constitute a direct temptation—as we have recently seen—to the Government in England to come forward with proposals to pass on to the Indian Exchequer charges which ought to be legitimately borne by England * * * Further these surpluses enable our friends over the way to represent that everything in India is as it should be and that all talk of grievances is manufactured by interested agitators for their own purposes. Finally I object to these surpluses because I think, they are morally wrong and indefensible—that the Government has no right to retain them. * * * Thirty crores of rupees taken from the people in six years beyond what the Government actually required!

In all his budget speeches he entered a powerful plea for the reduction of taxation and he lost no opportunity to refute the official theory of the growing prosperity of the Indian people. As H. E. the Viceroy observed the other day, in regard to financial and educational questions in particular his attacks were frequently most forcible and incisive so much, so indeed that the abilities of his opponents were frequently taxed to the utmost to meet his arguments. When Mr. Gokhale made his memorable speech in the Viceregal Council suggesting a radical

alteration in the basis of taxation in India, the Hon. Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson, the then financial minister, gave the following answer.

"The Hon'ble Mr. Gokhale reminds me of Mr. Gladstone. On one occasion, when Mr. Gladstone was suffering from the effects of over work, he was ordered by his physician complete rest. By way of carrying out the orders of his physician he promptly brought a Turkish Grammar and proceeded to study that language.

"Mr. Gokhale to the intense regret of every one in this room is admittedly suffering somewhat from the effects of over work. I have little doubt that his medical advisor has enjoined him to avoid all unnecessary effort. By way of carrying out those instructions he takes advantage of fifteen brief minutes at his disposal to embark on a discussion on such a trifle as a review of the whole basis of taxation.

"I will say frankly at once that I am not prepared to follow his example. I retreat and give him all honours of war, for I am not prepared in the few minutes at my disposal on the last day of the session and with the thermometer at about 100 to take up the cudgels either for or against a radical alteration in the basis of taxation."

One might also fittingly refer to the remark which Sir James Meston gave to Mr. Gokhale when he introduced a Resolution recommending the appointment of a committee to enquire into the adequacy or otherwise of the resources at the disposal of the Local Bodies. Sir James Meston said:—

Whenever Mr. Gokhale advocates a policy to which he attaches much importance, I am irresistibly reminded of the Indian juggler who sows a mango seed in a flower pot and covers it over with a cloth. In an extraordinarily brief space of time he removes the cloth, and behold there is a goodly mango tree in full bearing. So it is with Mr. Gokhale. He advocates a certain reform. We give him the mild answer which turneth away wrath, and we think we have before us an appreciable breathing time. But Mr. Gokhale has sown his little seed in his little flower pot; he has covered it over with his little cloth, and within an incredibly short space of time he removes his little cloth and presents to our astonished vision, a tree bearing not only leaves, not only buds and flowers but a goodly crop of wholesome fruit.

It must be said in fairness to the Viceroys and Finance Ministers with whom Mr. Gokhale came in contact that some of his schemes and ideas were received in good spirit and acted upon with a sincere desire to make themselves helpful. In many cases "the seeds of policy" planted by Mr. Gokhale had come to "quick maturity."

While Mr. Gokhale was almost exhausting himself by his labours in the Imperial Council and in connection with the series of visits he paid to England to advocate the cause of his country, to interview Lord Morley and other responsible ministers and to make a direct appeal to the heart of the democracy of England for fair play.

and justice to India there arose a crisis in our political history unparalleled in the annals of British Rule and which for a time threatened to result in portentous consequences to the Government and to the people at large. Lord Curzon's high-handed regime, his unholy attempt to explain away the Queen's Proclamation, his adroit manœuvre to break up the unity of the Bengalee race and above all his famous Convocation speech at the Calcutta University in which he attacked the veracity of the Indian people, roused popular feeling and indignation to a degree so difficult of description. If the partition of Bengal was the greatest blunder of Lord Curzon's regime, the method and manner in which he sought to enforce it so immediately was an unpardonable crime. He left to his successor a legacy of discontent and ill-will on the part of the people to the rulers. To borrow the language of a devout admirer of Mr. Gokhale and one of the self-sacrificing band of the Servants of India Society, the Hon. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastry:—

Boycotts and everything foreign was preached to the people, even schools and colleges falling under the indiscriminating ban; and in the course of this hysterical propaganda, schoolboys and editors often collided with the authorities. * *

Swaraj, in absolute independence of the selfish and hateful Feringhee, was held up as the goal of our aspirations, and though the prominent apostles of the new faith expressly disavowed the use of force or violence of any sort the popular mind could not always remember the distinction between passive resistance and active resistance. * * * Ideas like these, now openly inculcated, now conveyed in impressive whispers, and brooded over by eager minds, smarting under a sense of wrong, could lead but to one result. They destroyed the faith that the younger generation might have had in the old lines of public work, and disposed the new patriotism to the adoption of methods which were fancied to be at once more manly, stern, and efficacious.

The immediate effect was to deepen and strengthen the discontent already in existence, and to embitter a hundredfold the controversies that divided the two political schools.

Even some of the best minds of the country began to despair. But Mr. Gokhale rose to the occasion. He had a most difficult task to perform and it was two-fold. The first was to make the Government of the country realise the perilous character of the situation and the second to bring the younger generation and some even of the older to realise the futility of some of their ways and means. "He felt that he ought, so far as in him lay, to correct the false notions and distorted views that had been caused by the unvaried contemplation of recent wrongs, and to start the first currents of a larger and juster conception of the condition and needs of the country." With this

object he spent nearly the whole of February 1907 in the United Provinces and the Punjab, delivering public lectures at important centres.

The mission, in which he displayed rare courage and singular tact and acumen, had the desired effect.

In so far as his attitude towards the Government and its repressive measures were concerned Mr. Gokhale was unequivocal in the expression of his views. It is impossible to read his peroration to the fifth budget speech he made in the Council in 1906 without being touched by its simple and solemn words.

A volume of new feeling is gathering, which requires to be treated with care. New generations are rising up, whose notions of the character and ideals of British rule are derived only from their experience of the last few years, and whose minds are not restrained by the thought of the great work which England has on the whole accomplished in the past in this land. I fully believe that it is in the power of the Government to give a turn to this feeling, which will make it a source of strength and not of weakness to the Empire. One thing however, is clear. Such a result will not be achieved by any methods of repression. What the country needs at this moment above everything else is a Government, national in spirit, even though it may be foreign in personnel,—a Government that will enable us to feel that our interests are the first consideration with it, and that our wishes and opinions are to it a matter of some account. My Lord, I have ventured to make these observations, because the present situation fills me with great anxiety. I can only raise my humble voice by way of warning, by way of appeal. The rest lies on the knees of the gods.

A year later in urging for reforms that could to some extent satisfy the hopes and aspirations of his countrymen, Mr. Gokhale made another appeal to Lord Minto.

My Lord, it is of importance that there should be no unnecessary delay in this matter. The public mind is in a state of great tension, and unless the concessions are promptly announced and steps taken to give immediate effect to them, they will, I fear, lose half their efficacy and all their grace. The situation is an anxious—almost critical one, and unless the highest statesmanship inspires the counsels of the Government, difficulties threaten to arise of which no man can foresee the end.

Mr. Gokhale rightly added:—

My Lord, the Government will no doubt put down—indeed, it must put down—all disorder with a firm hand. But what the situation really requires is not the policeman's baton or the soldier's bayonet, but the statesman's insight, wisdom and courage. The people must be enabled to feel that their interests are, if not the only consideration that weighs with the Government and this can only be brought about by a radical change in the spirit of the administration. Whatever reforms are taken in hand, let them be dealt with frankly and generously. And My Lord, let not the words 'too late' be written on every one of them."

All India heard with satisfaction the reply of the Viceroy who responded with a promise of reforms

which he said were then being formulated but could not be announced. It is now an open secret that the credit of urging the reforms insistently and with a passionate devotion for the advancement of his country is Mr. Gokhale's. By constant conversations with the Viceroy in India and with Lord Morley and his colleagues in England, Mr. Gokhale made the Government of the day realise the justice of the demands of the Indian people. The demands which Mr. Gokhale put forth were "adjusted with scrupulous care to the capacity of slow-moving India, the susceptibilities of the jealous Anglo-India and the practical sense of the British people's aversion to theories and systems in politics." It is with pathetic interest we state that almost all of Mr. Gokhale's demands were complied with.

The Legislative Councils have been expanded; to the inner sanctuaries of the Executive Councils of the local and imperial governments Indians have been admitted; in the deliberations of the Secretary of State's Council Indians have been given a voice, and an Indian has been sworn in as a member of the Privy Council.

While Mr. Gokhale was devoting his attention to the political and educational advancement of his country he did not forget the great need there was for its social and industrial regeneration. In regard to social reform his attitude was definite and pronounced. He was often grieved to think of the differences of caste and creed which divided our countrymen and he lost no opportunity in pleading for the eradication of these distinctions. The wretched condition of the depressed classes made a profound impression on him and on many occasions he was intensely distressed over their miserable lot. He said on one occasion, "it is so deeply deplorable that it constitutes a grave blot on our social arrangements" and it is "deeply revolting to our sense of justice."

He appealed with warmth and feeling to the leading men of the Hindu and Mussalman communities to consider that the country belonged as much to the Hindu as to the Mussalman and that no healthy national life was possible unless the two great communities co-operated together for the common progress and welfare of their motherland.

He constantly appealed to the younger generations to remember "the call of duty on all sides" and it was his greatest ambition to band together a number of young men who will devote themselves entirely to the service of the motherland. With this great and noble object

in view he started on the 12th June 1905, an organisation called the Servants of India Society. Its great aim was to build up the future Indian Nation. He knew the task was one of enormous magnitude but it was at the same time worthy of the highest endeavours of one of India's noblest sons. The aims and objects of the Society he has thus set forth:—

The Servants of India Society has been established to meet in some measure those requirements of the situation. Its members frankly accept the British connection, as ordained, in the inscrutable dispensation of Providence, for India's good. Self-Government on the lines of English Colonies is their goal. This goal, they recognise, cannot be attained without years of earnest and patient work and sacrifices worthy of the cause. Moreover the path is beset with great difficulties—there are constant temptations to turn back—bitter disappointments will, repeatedly try the faith of those who have put their hand to the work. But the weary toil can have but one end if only the workers grow not faint-hearted on the way. One essential condition of success is that a sufficient number of our countrymen must now come forward to devote themselves to the cause; the spirit in which religious work is undertaken. Public life must be spiritualised. Love of country must so fill the heart that all else shall appear as of little moment by its side. A fervent patriotism which rejoices at every opportunity of sacrifice for the motherland, a dauntless heart which refuses to be turned back from its object by difficulty or danger, a deep faith in the purpose of Providence that nothing can shake—equipped with these, the worker must start on his mission and reverently seek the joy which comes of spending oneself in the service of one's country.

The Society has been progressing steadily and Mr. Gokhale's magnetic personality has brought into its fold some of the brightest and the most promising members of the various Indian communities. It is an organisation started for promoting in a "religious spirit by all constitutional means the national interests of the Indian people."

We fear we have but made a feeble attempt to present to the reader the main points of the manifold activities of Mr. Gokhale. Within the short span of life allotted to him he has achieved so much that it is difficult to cite the example of another Indian to compare him with. "A graduate at eighteen, Professor at twenty, Editor of a journal like the Quarterly of the Poona Sarvanjanic Sabha at twenty-one, Secretary of the Provincial Conference at twenty-five, Secretary of the National Congress at twenty-nine, leading witness before a most important Royal Commission at thirty-one, Provincial Legislator at thirty-four, Imperial Legislator at thirty-six, President of the National Congress at thirty-nine, National Envoy to the Imperial Government and Founder of

institutions at forty"—what a truly marvellous and brilliant career has it been and how mournful it is to think that a life of such "singular gloriousness" had been so soon cut short! We feel "that a sudden darkness has fallen upon our lines." We cannot resist the thought that he was "a man whose death would leave humanity the poorer in any age and in any part of the world." An embodiment of public spirit and self sacrifice, "without self and without stain," he sacrificed himself at the altar of the motherland. Mr. Gokhale often impressed on his countrymen that "public life must be spiritualised." He lived the life he preached. In honouring the memory of one of the veteran Indian politicians Mr. Gokhale uttered the remarkable words, "national life to be complete

must be many-sided, and a man who brings honour to the Indian name, no matter in what field, advances thereby our national cause and deserves to be honoured by us on national grounds." Mr. Gokhale has now "crossed the line which there is no re-crossing. But he is not altogether gone from us. He has left us the precious inheritance of a noble example. He has left us his name to honour, his memory to cherish. Above all he has left us the cause—the cause he loved so clearly and served so well. Our very sorrow to-day speaks to us of our duty to that cause and no tribute that we can offer to the memory of the departed will be more truly fitting than a resolve to recognise and an endeavour to discharge his duty according to the measure of our capacity and the requirements of our country."

The Solidarity of the British Empire

BY SIR SIDNEY LEE.

[From a letter addressed by Sir Sidney Lee to Mr. G. A. Natesan, Editor, *The Indian Review*.]

I congratulate you on the valuable series of articles on the war which you have published in the *Indian Review*. They give an immense amount of useful, interesting and accurate information which must be of great service in helping the Indian Public to realise the conditions and the issue of the great conflict.

I do not think that any feature of the situation will impress more deeply the future historian of the war than the solidarity with which the whole of the British Empire has identified its varied interests with those of the mother country. All subjects of the King, of whatever creed and race, are standing shoulder to shoulder in the cause of imperial defence, with whole-heartedness, to which I do not think the world's history offers an even remote parallel. The fundamental cause of this imposing spirit of unity springs—I cannot doubt—from the recognition by all the members of the Empire that Imperial rule rests throughout its boundaries on an indissoluble basis of Justice and Liberty. Evidence abounds that among our German foes Imperial Government stands for cruel oppression of the weak and rigorous repression of non-Germanic national sentiment. The Germans with

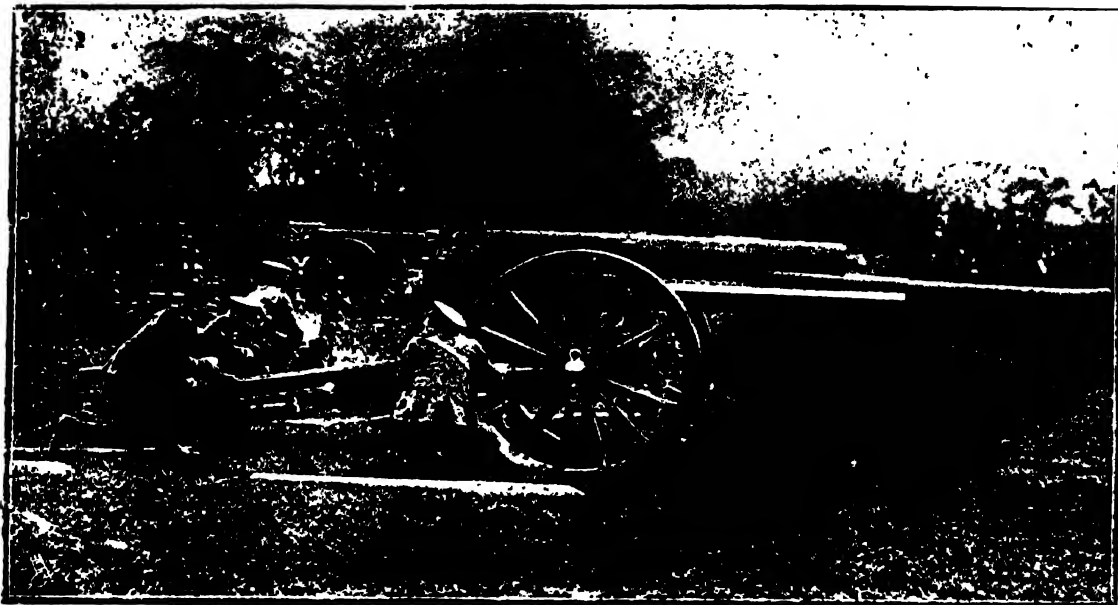
their arrogant faith in the might of their own race, are incapable of acknowledging the rights of other races. With characteristic shortness of sight they brought about this war in ignorance of the fact that principles of feeling and conduct to which they were strangers enjoyed an active life in countries other than their own. Especially did they believe that the rancours and jealousies which foreign peoples rouse in their hearts found reflection in the view which the Indian peoples took of Englishmen. They were encouraged to aim a blow at the British Empire by the confident anticipation that many of its component parts would at their call rally to their flag, and join them in working for Imperial disruption. They reckoned without their host. At any rate the soldiers of India are doing what they can to open German eyes to the nature of the German miscalculation. The defeat of Germany in this murderous war means for the British Empire a strengthening of its salutary foundations and a fresh development of its liberties and its prosperity. But beyond that the triumph of the Allies means the emancipation of the whole world from the menace of German barbarism and brute force.



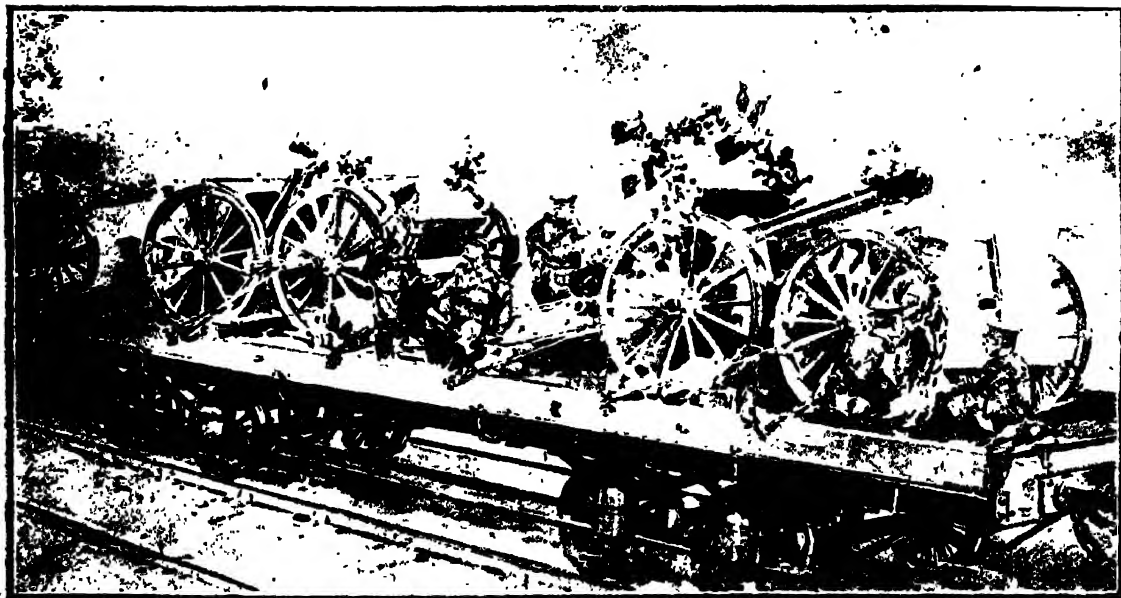
FIELD ARTILLERY.



THE GERMAN WAR FACTORY.—KRUPP'S.



ROYAL HORSE ARTILLERY.—60 POUNDER GUN.



BRITISH GUNS ON THE WAY TO THE FRONT.
Flower-decked and Flagged by France.

ENGINEERING IN WAR

BY MR. JAMES R. COATS, B. SC.; ASSOC. M. INST., C. E.

FOR the purpose of this article, it is proposed to give "Engineering" its broadest meaning. In the Charter of the Institution of Civil Engineers, which is the oldest incorporated body of Engineers, it is set out that Civil Engineering is the "art of directing the great sources of power in nature for the use and convenience of man." Possibly the definition of Military Engineering might therefore be "the art of directing the great sources of power in nature for the abuse and inconvenience of man." The Civil Engineer is a Peace Engineer and the Military Engineer a War Engineer but in the present war the services of both have been utilised to the fullest extent on both sides and their ingenuity and resources taxed to the utmost. In no previous war has the Engineer and his "many inventions" played such an important part. The death-dealing capacity of many terrible engines of destruction have in this war been put to the actual test against a living enemy for the first time. There are also numerous cases when the special circumstances and conditions which have arisen in the field have given further opportunities to the Engineer and he has not been slow in designing and manufacturing new death-dealing appliances to meet the need.

The discoveries of the metals and their uses; of the processes of converting iron into steel and the possibilities of steam, electricity, explosives, etc., have all been taken full advantage of by the Engineer and turned to account in warfare. The Engineer has harnessed all these to the chariot of the God of War.

The modern weapons of war are veritable triumphs of the foundry and Engineering workshops although the skill and ingenuity expended on them are worthy of a better cause. The weapon of the individual soldier is the modern high velocity rifle with its comparatively light weight, its capability of being used for close fighting as a kind of spear, by affixing a steel knife, the bayonet, near the muzzle or as a club without. Its beautifully rifled steel barrel; its very accurate sighting appliances; its steel or nickel coated bullet of small calibre, of great penetration and damaging power; its capabilities for very rapid and continuous fire; its flat trajectory, long range,

extreme accuracy and ability to stand the very rough usage demanded by war—make it one of the outstanding examples of the application of Engineering to war. The machine gun is an even more wonderful Engineering triumph with its finely balanced automatic recoil and loading mechanism, which does away with the necessity of loading and unloading by hand and after the filled cartridge belt has been adjusted, only requires the pressing of a button to imbue the machine with life and enable it to send out on its mission of death—a steady stream of bullets at the rate of 450 per minute guided and controlled by the master hand and brain of the "man behind the gun" who if not a trained mechanical Engineer is undoubtedly a very close approximation to it in all things that concern his beloved gun.

Dealing with Artillery, there are many types of weapons, light and heavy, fixed and mobile, each type specially designed and manufactured for the particular work of destruction it is intended to do. The modern field guns are all quick-firers fitted with ingeniously arranged cylinders to take up and dissipate nearly the whole of the fierce recoil of the explosion, which in the older type of gun caused the gun to run a long way backwards and necessitated the relaying of the gun between every shot. They are all breech loading and in the British guns the breech block mechanism with its smooth working, easy action and reliability is a most ingenious application of the interrupted screw and is a beautifully finished example of the work of the machine shop. The 60 pound gun, which so far as we know at present is the heaviest gun, of this type the British Army uses, is a most perfect piece of mechanism and is rightly considered by experts to be the most wickedly destructive type of weapon used by the British Army. It is however an open secret that the British Ordnance Engineers have designed and manufactured very much heavier guns of a mobile type and it is highly probable that these have been sent to the front by now. More than that cannot be said at present. The type of gun known as the howitzer, in its original form is of much greater antiquity than the field-gun. It has a relatively greater calibre, a lower velocity and fires a heavier shell.

Probably the Engineer and his works have been

more in evidence and have had more effect on the evolution of the navy to its present high standard than on the army. It is a far cry from the wooden Man-O'-war of Nelson's day to the heavily armoured floating fortresses of to-day, with its enormous capacities for destruction. Steam has, of course, been mainly responsible for a great deal of the change. In the old Man-O'-war nearly everything was worked by hand and with the exception of a few blocks and tackle, levers and wedges, there were few mechanical appliances in use. In the modern battle-ship, the Engineer has changed all this and nearly everything that in the old days was done by hand is now done mechanically by the agency of steam, electricity, hydraulic power or compressed air. In fact it is doubtful if Nelson could now see one he would recognise the modern battle-ship as a battle-ship at first sight. The ship itself is propelled by powerful engines or turbines, the steam for which is generated in boilers whose furnaces can be changed to burn either coal or oil-fuel under forced draught. In the engine room, pumps and air compressors provide the hydraulic and pneumatic energy and whirling dynamos generate electricity for all the various purposes in the ship including the lighting of the ship, the wireless telegraph, the search light etc. The big guns in the turrets are elevated, depressed, and swung in training on the target by hydraulic pressure or electricity and the ammunition is brought up from the safety of the magazine in electric or hydraulic lifts and the gun itself is fired by electricity. It is only quite recently that the Engineer in the navy has had his services properly recognised but since that has been done and he has been given rank and grade, this has been greatly for the good of the navy and its efficiency as a fighting arm. In the case of destroyers and even more so in the case of submarines, there is a strong impression that there appears to be little of the sailor left and the Engineer and artificer predominate. The vessels themselves are little more than thin steel shells filled with powerful machinery and manned and handled by remarkably small crews. The submarine must of necessity have two sets of propelling engines, one set for use while on the surface, and the other for use when submerged; the former is usually driven by internal combustion oil engines and in the more recent vessels, kerosene has displaced petrol as the fuel, thereby considerably lessening risks of explosions inside the vessels. Under the surface, the propelling power is generally electric. Compressed air is also used and

serves a treble purpose. It is used for discharging torpedoes through the torpedo tubes, for expelling water from the ballast tanks which control the submerging of the vessel and also for keeping the air in the vessel pure while submerged. The lighting of the vessel is of course also done by electricity furnished from the accumulators.

The torpedo which when it does hit its target, probably shares with the mine, the reputation of being the most deadly and destructive weapons of modern naval warfare. Unlike the mine, one type of which floats freely and is blindly carried hither and thither by wave, wind and current and is consequently a danger to friend and foe alike and also to non-belligerents another type of which is anchored to a particular spot, the controlling and propelling mechanism of the torpedo enables it to be directed against targets at very long ranges with remarkable accuracy and at a very high speed. The propelling engines are actuated by compressed air and the guiding rudders which regulate the depth below the surface at which a torpedo travels and its direction is controlled by gyroscopes.

The "Barr and Stroud" range finder invented and manufactured by Professor Barr (Professor of Civil Engineering, Glasgow University) and Professor Stroud is being used by practically all the nations engaged in this war. It is a wonderfully ingenious apparatus and in the hands of a skilful operator can give the ranges of objects up to great distances more accurately than they can be actually measured by means of the ordinary chain and tape measures commonly used by surveyors.

In the air also as on land, on the sea and under the sea, progress in Engineering has introduced many new factors in war. The dirigible and the aeroplane have proved of immense utility and reliability both as scouts in reconnaissance and as fighting machines and this has only been rendered possible by the enormous improvement made in recent years by motor Engineers in the design and construction of internal combustion engines.

Apart from other factors which make for success of an army in the field, mobility plays a very important part. A belligerent capable of moving troops quickly from or to any particular point has immense advantages over an army which cannot do so as quickly and in this way railways and other forms of mechanical traction have been utilised to an immense extent. The railway Engineers, especially on the continent, have not laid out and constructed their systems solely with the view of facilitating the carrying

on of the commerce of the country but with a very keen eye on their strategic value in war time. Motor vehicles of all kinds, lorries, busses and pleasure cars have been used to an enormous extent in the present war. Wherever there were roads and sometimes where there were no roads, they have gone and played a great part in the rapid transport of troops, ammunition and supplies. Armoured motors in the firing line and in raids beyond it have been very successfully employed; motor field kitchens have administered to the comfort of the soldier in the firing line and motor ambulances have ensured the speedy conveyance of wounded from the firing line to the hospitals in the rear and portable forges and machine shops provide for the repair of the motors themselves. For these and many other purposes, motor engineers and mechanics have adapted and used their vehicles and their services have been of an inestimable value in this war.

The Electrical Engineer is also greatly in evidence. The telephone, the telegraph and the wireless have been adapted to the needs that have arisen and made portable and convenient for service in the field. The general at the staff headquarters can communicate direct with the firing line and the trenches and the battery commander from his observation post as close to the target as he can get in comparative safety, can communicate directly with his battery concealed two miles or so to the rear, and direct and control the fire of his guns much more efficiently and accurately than if he were actually present with his men. Electric search lights close to the firing line turn night into day, prevent surprise attacks and the movement of the enemy's troops under cover of darkness. Wire entanglements can be and are electrified and a current sent through sufficiently strong to electrocute any soldier who touches the wire.

Whenever a check occurs in the advance of troops in the firing line, it is the duty of every soldier to at once dig some sort of a hole in the ground, if for no other reason than to provide for his own personal safety. If a check in the advance continues for any length of time, the holes are joined up and a trench formed, which as time goes on is gradually deepened, widened and elaborated, until, if no further move is made, the trenches practically become earthen redoubts or forts with overhead cover and capable of giving very fair protection to the occupants even against shell fire. The first part of the work is done by the individual soldier as best as he possibly can, but the further elaborations are planned and laid

out by the military engineers of which every modern army maintains as part of its organisation a specially trained corps, including mounted and dismounted men, who do most of the rough engineering work required by an army in the field. They are drilled, trained and armed in the same manner as the ordinary soldier and are just as efficient fighting men. Amongst their manifold duties they construct temporary roads and railway lines, trenches, and redoubts, build temporary bridges and also destroy bridges, roads and railways etc., likely to be of use to the enemy if they fell into his hands.

They carry explosives and all sorts of tools, axes, saws, etc., in their equipment and clear away trees, bushes, houses etc., likely to interfere with the advance or the field of fire of the troops which they accompany. They number skilled surveyors and map makers amongst them, and every kind of skilled tradesmen, bricklayers, masons, carpenters, fitters etc., and are altogether a most useful body of men without whom an army in the field could scarcely exist.

They have proved of the greatest use in the peculiar trench fighting now taking place when it has often only been possible to advance by driving zig zag saps either open or blind, which latter are really tunnels, as close to the enemy's trenches as possible and then from the end of the sap-heads opening out trenches where sufficient troops can be collected to rush the enemy's trenches. It has been by this and similar methods that many of the small but important advances recently achieved have been made. Both sides have applied the method and sometimes the saps have met between the trenches and sometimes the saps have been driven right up to the opposing trenches and these blown up by explosives.

There are many trench-digging machines ordinarily designed for peaceful agricultural purposes which can dig out trenches at a high rate of speed and with a great saving of time and labour. These machines must be of very great use to an army which is being slowly pushed back from trench to trench and it is believed that our enemies have made considerable use of them and have dug row upon row of trenches to their rear.

It has often been said that this is an engineer's war, a war of machines and metals and that other things being equal the best machines and metals must win. If that be so, then there can be no doubt as to the result, for our machines and metals have always been and still are the best that the world can produce.

ARTILLERY IN WARFARE

BY MAJOR W. B. WALKER, R. A.

AS a preface to this article it should be understood that the information offered in its pages is not intended to contain an accurate description of any gun, or its mechanism, but merely deals with the subject on broad theoretical lines, and endeavours, in as simple words as possible, to give a general idea to those who have not, perhaps, had an opportunity of studying the subject, and who may be bewildered by the miscellany of names such as guns, howitzers, mortars, shrapnel, fuzes, trench-guns and so on which appear in the newspapers now-a-days.

The importance of artillery was astonishingly brought home in the Russo-Japanese War. The Japanese had excellent guns and seemed to take to this, to them new subject, in a wonderful manner—as they had amalgamated the best points of all nations in material gunnery and fire tactics with the makings of their artillery. This, in combination with their inherent abilities as soldiers, gave them an immense advantage over the Russian gunners. But it was their siege guns, which brought home what guns were really capable of.

The forts at Port Arthur had been built before these enormous howitzers had been thought of; and though strong enough to be impregnable against their contemporary guns, were literally pulverized by the Japanese fire. The Russians, concerning whose physical bravery there has never been any doubt, stood it as long as human flesh and blood could, but as the strength of a chain is that of its weakest link, so is the endurance of the human body limited by its nerve system—and that of the Russians was shattered.

The same occurred at Liege—the defence of the Liege forts against the German attack is a story which will read as one of the most glorious pages in the history of any nation. As long as it was a question of merely numerical strength, and equal guns, against him, General Leman and the gallant defenders would have foiled the Germans, but when the Leviathans were brought up, the forts which, with those of Antwerp, were the most up-to-date and scientifically constructed in the world, were literally blown from under them.

But perhaps now it would be advisable to give the reader a rapid general idea of what are usually classified under the common generic term, guns. Only such guns as are used in the land service, and especially those used in the present war will be discussed.

These we may divide into four classes:—

Quick-firers or field guns, field (or slight) howitzers, siege guns, (heavy howitzers or mortars) and anti-air-craft guns.

Their various functions are as follows:—

The function of the field-gun, in addition to the direct destruction to life, and gaining the mastery over the opposing Artillery, is to demoralize the infantry and prepare the way for the assault of its own infantry. It is very mobile and with its unit (a British field battery consists of 6 guns with their complement of limbers and wagons, each with their team of six horses) it is capable of being rapidly transferred to any point at which it is required. They gallop to the position indicated, each team swings round so as to bring the muzzle of the gun to face the enemy—the gun is unhooked from the limber which contains the ammunition supply, and the limber being moved to a convenient position beside its own gun, the teams and wagons which contain an extra supply of ammunition, trot off to some spot under cover. The guns, now having been given the range, and the time fuzes being set to the correct timing for that range, open a very rapid shrapnel fire on the enemy to prevent him from making adequate resistance to the infantry which is advancing under cover of the rain of shrapnel from its own guns. This fire is kept up until the infantry is within a very few hundred yards of its objective and the opponents are considered to have been sufficiently shaken for the assault.

Next we have the light field howitzers. These are weapons which have come very much into favour in the last few years. They are extremely useful and have encroached largely on the province of the field-gun proper. Like the field-gun it fires shrapnel, but it also in addition fires a high explosive shell, with both low muzzle velocity, and correspondingly high trajectory. As may be imagined this is most effective for searching out the enemy in trenches behind cover or behind light fortifications.

Our 18 pounder field-gun is very little behind the French 75 millimetre, and our 4.5 inch is the most accurate and best light howitzer in existence and it seems a pity that, in order to avoid this multiplicity of guns, one weapon combining the advantages of both should not be evolved, even if one were to lose slightly the great advantage of the field-gun *viz*, its extremely rapid rate of accurate fire. The points to be aimed at would be, that it should be a real quick-firing weapon, more mobile than the present 4.5 inch and using fixed ammunition of two descriptions, shrapnel up to 7,000 yards with a full charge, and a high explosive shell with a reduced charge giving a high trajectory and consequent searching power, capable of ranging 5,000 yards. I do not think that a gun, which would fire a shell of more than 21 pounds with a low trajectory 7,000 yards, and yet at the same time not give too great a weight behind the team, could be evolved. Such a gun would be, it is thought, very effective as it would have all the value of the quick-firing field-gun, and yet the searching power of a howitzer; and its own infantry could advance under cover of its fire nearer to hostile lines than they can at present with the 18 pounder.

Opinion formerly was against the necessity of having a field gun with a range greater than 5,500 yards, because of the difficulty of observing the effect of fire at a longer range—but aeroplanes in this war have done away with such limitations. They are most useful to batteries as they can fly over and locate the enemy's guns, drop smoke bombs on their positions and so give the desired area for their own guns to concentrate their fire on, and then signal any corrections which may be necessary to bring that fire exactly on to the objective.

The French do not believe in howitzers as much as the Germans, for the following reasons which they claim in favour of their "Soixante quinze," *viz*, that the mobility of the smaller guns is a factor of safety, and that they can fire an infinitely greater number of rounds in a given time, as in their "Raffales" or "Sheaves of fire". Many small shells will do more harm than fewer large ones; big guns may have a greater moral effect, but actual damage is preferable to noise.

The French can, to a certain extent, do without light howitzers as they only, of all European nations, use high explosives in their field artillery, and this undoubtedly enables them to kill vertically behind shields and in trenches.

There is no question that the French field-

gun is the best in the world and that the German is the worst in Europe, and the method by which the latter reached this undesirable position must have been a source of great heart burning to them. In 1896 the Germans re-armed all their field artillery with what was undoubtedly the most up-to-date gun in Europe, and it is generally thought that France, who had been making secret experiments with a quick-firing-gun, knew that Germany had to re-arm, and waited until that country had been put to this enormous expense and then, in 1897, introduced their quick-firer the "Soixante quinze" which completely revolutionized artillery tactics and made Germany's 96 pattern out of date.

In later years Germany did convert her 96 pattern, and make it into a quick-firer but though they did the best they could with it, it could never be the same as the perfect French gun which had been designed all through from beginning as a quick firer.

The essential point of a quick-firing-gun is that the carriage does not jump about when the gun is discharged, and so necessitate fresh laying and the running up of the carriage between each round, as the gun recoils independently of its lower carriage, and is brought back mechanically to the firing position after the recoil has been completed. It also fires fixed ammunition, that is, the propelling charge is in a rigid brass case; and the shell being fixed into the mouth, and the primer or cap into the base of the case it is in fact a glorified rifle cartridge.

The gun itself consists of several concentric layers, the innermost of which is a tube, and round this is wound steel wire of oblong section, under tensions which differ according to the various interior stresses, which will have to be met at different points along the length of the bore, due to the ignition of the firing charge. Outside this is an outer tube or jacket, to the rear end of which is attached a breech ring, which carries the breech mechanism, and also an attachment to which is fixed the end of the hydraulic recoil buffer. On the outside of the jacket and running its full length are projecting wings, which slide in corresponding grooves in the top carriage.

The top carriage, or cradle, which is attached to the lower carriage by rocking trunnions, has in it two apertures; in the lower the gun is free to slide backwards and forwards in the grooves mentioned above, and in the other is firstly contained a mechanical device for checking the

recoil of the gun, and secondly the means of again bringing the gun back to its firing position.

If readers will study the illustrations of guns and howitzers, which appear elsewhere in this magazine, they will observe, one, two or even three cylinders running parallel to the gun. Where there are three of these cylinders, two of them would contain hydraulic buffers in which are a piston and piston rod and also a liquid mixture. When the gun is fired this liquid is forced from one side of the piston head to the other, through graduated openings, which causes a constant pressure to be set up against the force of recoil, until the gun is brought to rest. But meantime certain very powerful springs which are contained in the third cylinder have been compressed, also by the force of the recoil. When the latter is completed, these springs re-assert themselves and bring the gun back to the firing position.

The breech of the gun is tapped interiorally with a screw thread and on the breech block, exteriorally, is a thread of the same pitch as above. Now this screw threading is planed off, through alternate quarters of a circle, from both male and female threads, so that when the breech block is moved into the breech, its 4 sections of thread pass over the 4 planed sections in the breech, and when home, by giving a quarter turn to the breech block, the threads in the latter become interlocked with those in the former. By means of various mechanical devices the whole operation is done by one horizontal swing and is known as a "single motion breech mechanism."

A steel shield, the full width of the carriage between the wheels, and four or five feet high, is attached to the axle and affords protection to the men serving the gun from shrapnel and rifle bullets.

Under the trail eye of the gun is a broad serrated spade which becomes imbedded in the ground on the first shot being fired and effectually prevents any subsequent movement of the carriage. On either side of the trail are fixed seats; on the right hand one, sits the man who gives the necessary elevation to the top carriage, (which carries the gun) and also works the firing lever, on the left hand side sits the layer, who with his eye on the telescope keeps on the target all the time.

The gun slides backwards and forwards, between these two men as it is fired, without interfering with their work. Before the quick-firer was introduced, these two men would have had to stand clear during the actual firing process,

as both the gun and carriage on the shock of discharge, recoiled violently several feet.

Next in order we have the heavy artillery which of late years has made enormous strides, and has been specially studied by the Germans, who have not only, as other nations do, put their 4, 5 and 6 inch light howitzers on wheeled carriages, but have evolved a system of mounting their 8.4 and 11.2 inch howitzers and mortars on wheels also.

The function of heavy artillery is to come into action before the battle proper commences and by means of high angle, and indirect fire it will delay the enemy, force him to deploy before he wishes to do so, and will prevent the arrival of his field artillery within a zone, from which its fire would be effective. The heavy artillery would also be most useful in concentrating fire on some point, which the enemy is bound to pass in close formation, such as a pass, or approach to a bridge. It would, owing to its high angle and extremely accurate ranging, be of inestimable help to its own infantry when advancing especially when advancing against a strongly fortified position, and it would continue its fire until its infantry was almost into the enemy lines.

With the British Expeditionary Forces at first were a few batteries of 60 pounder guns, ranging 10,000 yards and firing high explosive and shrapnel shell. As may be imagined these guns proved extremely useful and put many German batteries out of action, since the latter could not live at a range longer than one at which they themselves could fire. As soon as it was found how useful these and similar guns such as 4.7 inch and heavy howitzers were, Sir John FRENCH asked for a supply from England. If these could have been brought into the firing line at the battle of the Aisne, it would have shortened the period of that battle by days, but unfortunately the Germans when retreating had destroyed the bridges as they passed, and so delayed the advance of our heavy artillery.

ANTI-AIR-CRAFT GUNS

There is at present little doubt that the best means of keeping off air craft is by counter attack with air craft: however, the subject is still in its infancy and all armies have designed some species of gun to meet the emergency; and it is generally considered that the following points are necessary;

The gun should be about 2 inch calibre, be capable of firing almost vertically, have an all round traverse, and preferably one worked as

were the 3 and 6 pounder Hotchkiss guns of former days, by means of a shoulder pad actuated by the layer and having a very quick pitch screw thread working into an elevating arc to give rapid elevation. It should have a very rapid rate of fire and very high muzzle velocity and giving as flat a trajectory as possible.

The advantage of a flat trajectory is that the velocity of the shell is so great, and its time of flight so short, that the force of gravity has not very long to act on it and consequently its flight is nearer to the direct line between gun and target, than it would be if it took longer to cover the same distance; because in the latter case you would have to aim higher above the target to allow for the drop due to gravity over a longer period.

Take, as an exaggerated case, a gun whose trajectory is so curved that to reach a target on the same level as itself at 3000 yards, you must elevate the axis of the gun through 30°. The range table for 3000 yards would accordingly be marked 30°. Now imagine an aeroplane coming straight towards the gun and you wished to fire at it when it was at 3000 yards away and bore 60° above horizontal. You would lay your sights on to the aeroplane and suddenly discover that your gun was pointing vertically in the air, and the shell would fall back on yourself if fired, because you had elevated the gun through 30° above the line of sight as being the correct elevation for 3000 yards.

On the question of projectiles there appear to be divided opinions. Some authorities advocate a high explosive shell with very sensitive percussion fuze, as they say that the pilot in an aeroplane is protected by an armoured driving seat from shrapnel, and even if a shrapnel bullet hits the envelope of a dirigible, the pressure of gases inside would soon close up the puncture made by a shrapnel bullet.

On the other side, the shrapnel advocates say that shrapnel bullets may easily destroy one of the numerous small stays or the steering apparatus on which so much depends, and to enable the high explosive shell to be effective, you must get a direct hit in order to make the fuze act; and it is much more difficult to obtain a direct hit with one shell, than with 200 dispersed bullets out of a shell.

But all agree that some form of smoke tracer with the shell is necessary, so that it may be estimated from the flight of the shell what corrections should be made to bring the next round on to the target.

Now we come to the question of the enormous siege guns which Germany has sprung on the world as a complete surprise. There is little doubt that some of these 16·8 inch howitzers were built secretly at Essen about six years ago, and kept for "der Tag." Nothing is known of them but it is more or less easy to work out the following approximate proportional figures for such howitzers as compared with the largest ones in use up to the birth of the new Leviathan:—

	11·2	16·8
Weight of Örd: with breech mechanism	.. tons 6·3	21·3
Weight in action	.. " 14·8	50
Heaviest load to be transported including transporting wagon.	.. " 9·25	31
Weight of shell	.. lbs. 750	2600
Weight of bursting charge (high explosive)	.. " 114	294
Recoil energy in foot tons	.. " 380	1530

A weapon such as the above could not possibly be fired off its own wheels, as no wheeled carriage could stand such a recoil energy—but it could be fired from the ground or a platform, if the weight were evenly distributed over an area of 200 square feet. On a platform 20' x 10' the vertical pressure per square foot on the earth, on firing at its maximum elevation of 65°, would be one ton—a by no means unreasonable amount on ordinarily firm ground.

It would be easy enough to transport such a howitzer by rail, but it could not be fired off any railway truck constructed. Its several parts could easily be divided up into several loads for travelling, probably 12, with ammunition supply per howitzer drawn by tractors; which will generally draw 3 times their own weight—but the scope of movement is very little, as on none but main roads could bridges be found sufficiently strong to stand such loads. Its services in action must be extremely slow. Once a shell gets home it will undoubtedly wipe the page clean; but for efficiency it is thought that a maximum of 12 inch is the largest howitzer fit to take into the field.

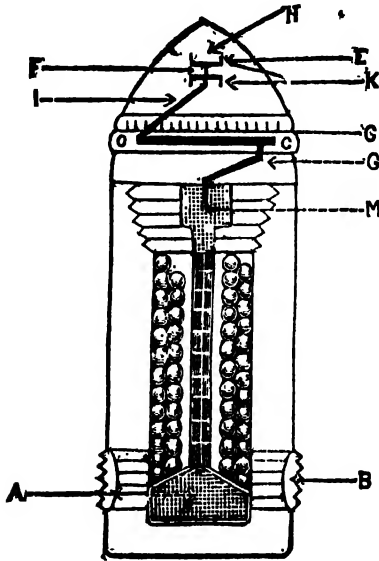
We next come to quite a new invention—Trench Howitzers,—again a Krupp model from Essen.—The howitzer only weighs about one hundred weight, and is of small bore about 1½ inch, fixed on an iron bed which is capable of being placed on wheels weighing gross under 1,200 lbs.

In this howitzer is placed a small explosive charge, then a wooden rod which projects beyond the muzzle and loosely on this rod, and outside the muzzle, is an enormous circular thin

walled shell, filled with high explosive, weighing about 187 lbs: and fitted with a fuze. This is fired at an elevation of from 45 to 80 degrees, with a muzzle velocity of 200 feet a second, and it carries at most about 350 yards. The fuze acts when the shell hits the ground and detonates the charge. It is used in trenches only.

Perhaps it would simplify matters if a general description of a fuze and shrapnel shell, and their action were given.

A fuze is a metal construction screwing into head of a shell and containing an arrangement of powder composition arranged in such a form that being actuated by a percussion cap it will ignite the bursting charge of a shell, at any required moment.



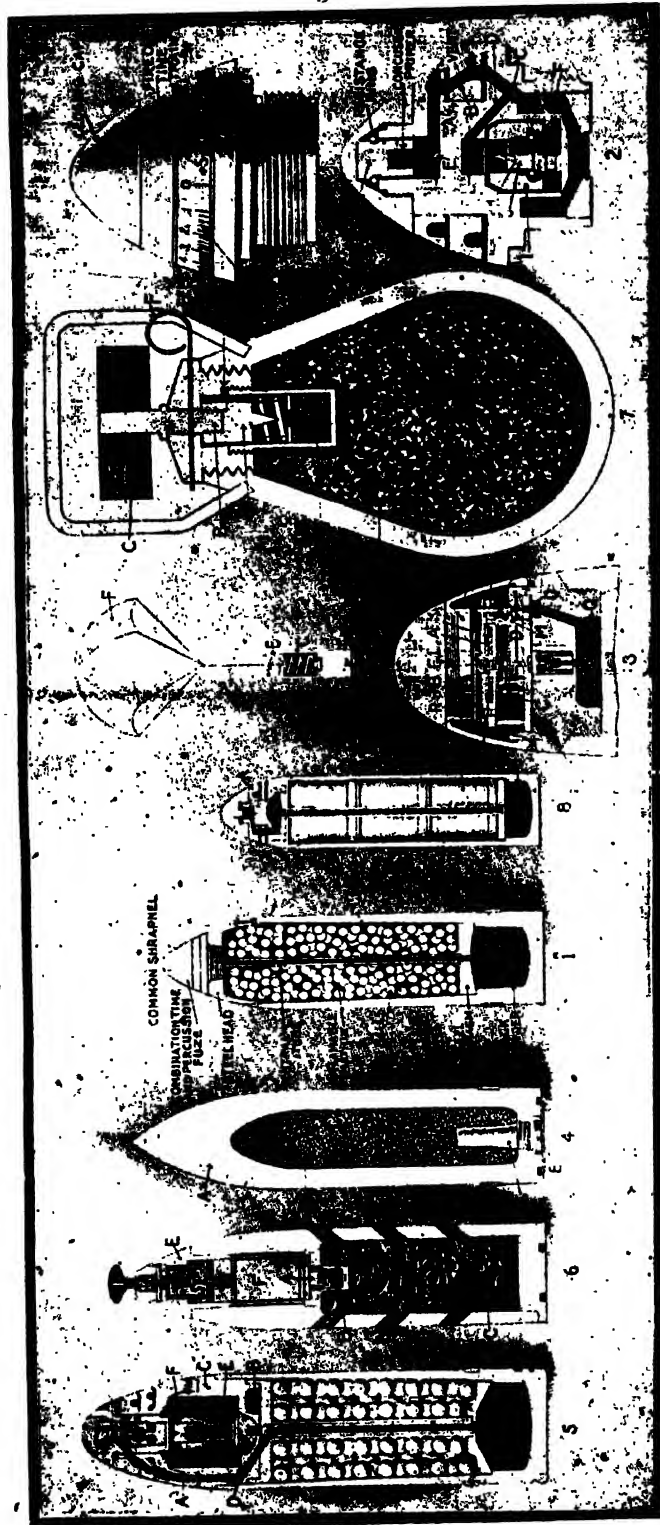
The shell is the lower part screwed at the mouth to take the fuze. Down the centre of the shell runs a tube filled with powder acting as a train to the main charge of powder contained in a little tin cup "A."; Round the tube the space is filled in with shrapnel bullets made of lead $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter in small sizes up to bullets of iron nearly half a pound in weight. The outside of the shell is a clean fit in the bore of the gun, but it will be noticed that at "B" is a band let into the shell. The exterior circumference of this copper band is greater than the bore of the gun, and so when the shell is fired, this soft copper is squeezed into the grooves of the gun, which being spiral, cause the shell to revolve about its longer axis. After

the shell has left the muzzle this spin is still retained, and it is that which enables the shell to always fly point foremost.

Screwed into the front portion of a shell, will be seen the fuze, the body of which is now generally made of aluminium and contains the following working parts. "E" is a copper cylindrical disc to which is firmly attached a needle "F". "H" is a hole passing through the walls of the fuze and through "E": "K" is a copper cap filled with a sensitive detonating mixture such as fulminate of mercury. "I" is a channel containing a comparatively slow burning powder composition connecting cap, with "CC" which is a ring of powder contained in the wall of the fuze. "G" is a ring capable of moving round the central axis of the fuze but independently of the remainder of the fuze. Through it is a small hole leading by a small channel to the main magazine "M" of the fuze; outside the hole, in "G" is an arrow head which can, by twisting the ring, be brought opposite any of the graduations on the ring above it, and so regulates the length of composition between the left edge of "CC" and the aperture in "G" through which the flash will pass to the magazine "M". The graduations are worked out from a table which shows that if you require a shell to burst after flying say 4,500 yards you give it a certain graduation on the ring. The graduations naturally vary for each range. Before the cartridge is put into the gun, a safety copper split pin is pulled out from "N" and the pellet "E" is practically free. When the gun is fired, the pellet being free, sets back the needle, explodes "K" and a flash passes through "I" into the composition ring "E", which gradually turns round until, by the time it has travelled the correct distance, it has reached the hole in "G" whence a flash passes to "M" and through the tube of shrapnel to "A". This though only a few ounces of powder, blows off the forepart of the shell and the bullets fly forward in a cone of dispersion and with the speed at which the shell was flying before "A" was exploded.

The whole subject of guns and gun construction must be a most fascinating one for those whose business it is to design and work them, for there are so many possibilities and such a field for originality.

It is the hope of the writer that, though only touching the outermost fringe of the subject, he may have interested and perhaps helped the general reader a little.

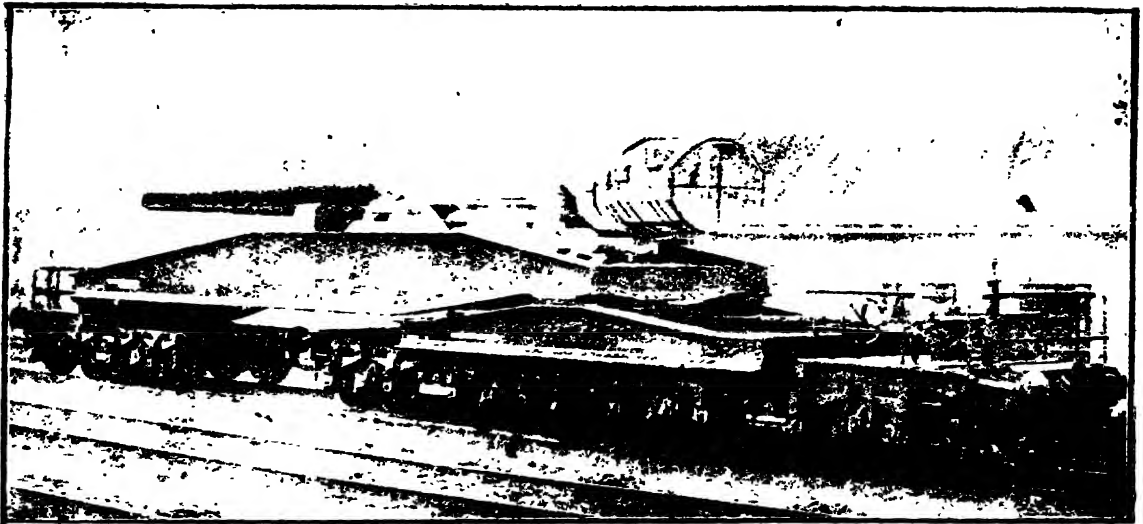


TYPICAL PROJECTILES OF FIELD ARTILLERY AND AIRCRAFT, SHOWN IN SECTION

From "The Scientific American."



THE NEW FRENCH SIEGE GUNS.



BIG KRUPP'S GUN TO THE FRONT.

THE RISE AND GROWTH OF JAPAN*

BY

THE HON. MR. V. S. SRINIVASA SASTRI.

FROM the earliest times down to a very recent date the Government of Japan was an absolute monarchy. The Imperial House has passed through many vicissitudes, though its continuity has been maintained by various devices and legal fictions. According to native accounts the present Emperor is the one hundred and twenty-third occupant of the throne, the first Emperor being Jimmu whose date is given as B.C. 660. The son did not always succeed his father as Mikado, but the succession seems in early times to have been determined by the Court officers who confined their choice, however, to the royal family. A curious custom obtained of old of changing the royal residence at every accession. The earliest capital was Takaoka in the Yamato province. About A. D. 709, Nara became capital and enjoyed the honour for nearly a century, until it was replaced in A. D. 794, by Kyoto which continued to be the seat of the Emperor till 1868, when, in order to make the Great Revolution as impressive and striking as possible, the last Mikado moved to Yedo which had been the seat of the Shogun from the time of Iyeyasu. To console the citizens of the old capital, its name was changed to Saikyo which means Western Capital, while the favoured city received the name of Tokyo which means Eastern Capital. Like most royal families, the family of the Mikado claims descent from the gods; but a curious consequence has followed in its case. It was thought, until the late Mikado broke this tradition as he has broken so many other traditions, that it was unworthy of those who partook of divinity to concern themselves with the affairs of mere men, so that the Emperors generally lived in perfect seclusion and delegated their powers to others. It was in this way that militarism became triumphant in Japanese affairs, and the royal powers, but not the title, passed into the hands of powerful families which one after another gained ascendancy. Another peculiarity, not altogether unknown in Indian history, was the excessive vogue attained by the practice of abdication. It was so common that at one and the same time two or even three ex-Emperors might be living

in retirement, but continuing to exercise some influence over the administration. In some cases the abdication was voluntary, but there are others in which it could not have been so. For instance, we hear of an Emperor who ascended the throne at the age of 9 and abdicated at 26, of one who ruled between 5 and 20, and strangely enough, of one who assumed the purple at 2 only to lay it aside at 4!

The earliest of the great houses that rose to supremacy is the Fujiwara which was overthrown by Kiyomori in 1156. His clan called the Taira held sway for a brief period, being replaced by the Minamoto whose founder Yoritomo received for the first time the title of Sei-i-tai-shogun in 1192. He removed his residence to the town of Kamakura and began the system of dual Government by the Emperor and by the Shogun, which has been such a marked feature of the history of Japan. The Shogunate now became hereditary, and owing to the enervating luxuries of the Shogun's court, the minorities, and the abdications, his power practically passed into the hands of a regent who belonged to the Hojo family. This regency in its turn became hereditary and subject to the same downward course as the Shogunate, so that in A. D. 1256 we find an infant regent under the guardianship of a tutor, who was the *de facto* ruler of the land. "Thus it had come about that a tutor now controlled the regent, who was supposed to control the Shogun; who was supposed to be the vassal of the Emperor; who in turn was generally a child under the control of a corrupt and venal court. Truly Government in Japan had sunk to its lowest point, and it was time for heroic remedies!" In 1281 during the Hojo regency occurred the only serious invasion of Japan. The invading force was an army of Mongolians sent by Kubla Khan in more than three hundred vessels. A timely typhoon coming to the aid of the Hojo regent, he succeeded in destroying the fleet and the army. The Hojo supremacy lasted till 1333 when the Emperor Godaigo resolved to come out of his seclusion and, with the help of a few strong friends, succeeded in assuming the real as well as the nominal sovereignty. But this restoration of the Imperial power, which promised to be popular, soon came

* This sketch which had originally been carried down to the year 1900 has since been brought up-to-date.

to an end. Go-daigo displeased one of his friends named Ashikaga Takauji, who after a severe struggle drove the Emperor out of Kyoto and installed himself there as Shogun. He set up another Emperor in 1336. Go-daigo and his descendants who represented the rightful line kept up a reduced court at Yoshino to the south. Thus there were two Imperial houses till 1392 when the then Shogun induced the representative of the southern dynasty to go to Kyoto and hand over the Imperial insignia to the representative of the usurping dynasty, himself assuming the dignity of retired Emperor. The Ashikaga Shoguns whose position was thus legalised, remained in power for a long period from 1334 to 1572.

The Ashikaga House gave the country some able Shoguns, but the inevitable degeneracy set in, and their rule became weak and disorganized. The barons who had risen to power during the time of the Hojo regents, now began to think of independence and freely warred with one another. There was complete anarchy in the land, and the unfortunate people were ground down and oppressed by the military bands whom the barons were obliged to keep. Pirates infested the shore. Poverty was so universal that once in A. D. 1500 the corpse of an Emperor was kept in the palace at Kyoto for 40 days for want of money for the funeral expenses! Here and there some baron, stronger than usual, kept down lawlessness in his territory and afforded opportunities for the growth of the arts of peace.

It was during the rule of the Ashikaga Shoguns that the first Europeans came to Japan. They were three Portuguese fugitives that had been cast ashore on one of the southern islands of Japan. But the first European visitor to Japan of whom we have certain knowledge is Mendez Pinto. He appears to have landed on Tane-ga-shima in 1545, and in return for the kindness that he received, he taught the natives the use of the arquebuse and the art of making powder. In five months the native armourers had made six hundred arquebuses. Pinto visited Japan again in 1547 and took back with him two Japanese, one Anjiro and his attendant. Father Xavier, who met them, took the Japanese to Goa and there taught them the elements of Christianity. In 1549 he visited Japan with them, landing at Kagoshima in the province of Satsuma. Xavier was highly impressed with the natural goodness of the Japanese nation. He preached without much effect in Hirado, Yamaguchi, and Kyoto. But the mission prospered after his departure in 1551. Portuguese and Spanish missionaries followed, and in a few years at

Kyoto itself there were seven churches with scores of converts. But their greatest success was in the southern provinces of Bungo, Arima, and Omura. The Prince of Omura himself embraced Christianity and at the instigation of the fathers displayed a violent zeal in the cause of his new religion. He gave the town of Nagasaki to the foreigners and had churches built on the sites of Buddhist monasteries pulled down for the purpose. In 1567 Nagasaki was almost entirely a Christian city. Success, however, corrupted the missionaries who, in the language of Sir Robert Douglas, 'waxed fat and kicked.' They assumed the insignia of state, and disdaining to go on foot, insisted on being carried about in sedan-chairs. They induced the Christian princes under their influence to adopt forcible measures to convert their subjects and organised a system of persecution which was soon to turn back on themselves.

Out of the anarchy that marked the later years of the Ashikaga Shogunate a baron named Ota Nobunaga carved a fortune for himself. He took advantage of a dispute about the succession to the office of Shogun to espouse the cause of one of the rival claimants named Yoshiaki. He succeeded in raising him to office, but as the new Shogun threatened to shake off his supremacy deposed him in 1573. He occupied Kyoto and ruled the country with a strong but gentle hand. He never called himself Shogun, but took from the Emperor the more modest title of *Naidaijin*. He was a friend of the Christian missionaries, but not so much from real sympathy with their work as from hatred of the Buddhist monks who had aided his enemies in his struggle for supremacy. He was a great man and nearly brought the whole of Japan under one strong government. But he had constant troubles, and in one campaign, being betrayed by a friend, he put an end to his own life by *harakiri* (suicide by disembowelment) in A. D. 1582.

This untimely death—Nobunaga was only 49 years old—was the signal for a fresh civil war. A man of humble extraction whom Nobunaga had raised for his great ability to the rank of general, and who is known by the names of Toyotomi Hideyoshi and Taiko Sama overcame all obstacles and sized the reins of Government. Once supreme, he kept down the forces of anarchy and began to develop the resources of Japan by encouraging foreign trade and promoting the other arts of civilised life. He built a great castle for himself at Osaka. The Emperor bestowed on him the title of *Kwampaku*, as owing to his low origin he was considered unfit to

receive the Shogunate. In 1587 the peace of the country was disturbed by a rebellion of the Satsuma Prince. With an imposing army, Hideyoshi reduced this powerful chief, but conciliated him by giving his principality back to his son on condition of his acknowledging fealty to the Emperor which he had shown an inclination to renounce. The town of Nagasaki, however, was made a Government town and placed under a Governor. Another stroke of conciliatory policy was the elevation of Tokugawa Iyeyasu to the principality of the Kwantō. Iyeyasu was a man of consummate ability and had at first espoused the cause of one of Nobunaga's sons against Hideyoshi. But now he was converted into a firm ally, and took up his residence at Yedo which has since risen to be the first city in the Japanese Empire. An important event in the time of Hideyoshi was the beginning of the persecution of Christians. It has already been mentioned how the missionaries had rendered themselves unpopular and dreaded on account of their arrogance and persecution of Buddhists. The Spanish Governor of Manila obtained from Hideyoshi permission to open trade with some ports of Japan. Accordingly some Franciscans settled for purposes of trade in Kyoto and Nagasaki, but they were treated with suspicion and hostility by the Jesuits. About this time, A.D. 1587, a Portuguese sea-captain appears to have made an incautious boast which roused the patriotic feelings of the Japanese. "The king my master begins by sending priests who win over the people; and when this is done he despatches his troops to join the Native Christians, and the conquest is easy and complete." The proceedings of the missionaries in China, India, and elsewhere had led to similar consequences and it is no wonder that Hideyoshi resolved to extirpate Christianity if possible. He wanted the foreign trade, but not the foreign faith. So in 1587 he issued his first edict against foreign religious teachers commanding them to leave the country in twenty days. Sir R. Douglas writes:—

"At first this peremptory command was not enforced; and it is possible that, if the missionaries had exercised due discretion, they would have been allowed to carry on their work. But they lacked that necessary virtue, and continued to destroy the Buddhist temples and idols which had always played so large a part in the life of the people. The natural reaction followed; and a bitter persecution broke out. In 1591 upwards of 20,000 converts were put to death.

In 1593 six Franciscans and three Jesuits, all foreigners, were burned at Nagasaki. But the worst horrors of the persecution belong to a later

date and will be mentioned in their place.

One other great event of the time of Hideyoshi remains to be recorded. It was his famous invasion of Korea. Gigantic preparations were made, and a powerful army was sent over under the joint command of Kato Kiyomasa who afterwards received divine honours and of a Christian Prince named Konishi Yukinaga. The whole force is said to have amounted to 200,000 men. The Korean King fled to China for help leaving his country at the mercy of the invaders. The Chinese force which was sent to his aid proved no match to the Japanese, who concluded an honourable peace and returned in 1596. One of the terms of the peace was that the Chinese Emperor should send a Buddhist priest of rank to perform for Taiko Sama the ceremony of investiture. The document granting the investiture contained expressions which offended the pride of Taiko Sama so mortally that he made preparations for a second expedition against Korea and China. This time, however, the Japanese troops, though they had the same generals as before, did not meet with the same good fortune and suffered innumerable hardships. The sad fate of the army brought sore distress to the heart of Taiko Sama who died soon after A. D. 1598. The remnants of the army were recalled by Iyeyasu who seized the Government after his master's death.

Iyeyasu was one of a council of five great lords whom Taiko Sama had appointed to carry on the Government on behalf of his infant son Hideyori. Iyeyasu's acts, however, were arbitrary and he was accused by Mitsunari, one of his colleagues, of infidelity to his trust. At once parties divided and there was nothing for it but war. Roughly the country divided north and south, the south declaring itself for the infant son of Taiko Sama, the north supporting Iyeyasu. On the side of the latter there were besides his sons, the veteran generals Kato Kiyomasa of Korean fame and Kuroda Yoshitaka. The noble and chivalrous house of Satsuma, the Choshu clan, Konishi the Christian general who took part in the Korean War, and Mitsunari formed a powerful combination against Iyeyasu. The rival armies met for the mastery at Sekigahara, a village that has since become famous. The battle lasted the whole of an October day in 1600. The result was a decisive victory for Iyeyasu, so decisive that it practically gave the country peace for 250 years. Baron after baron submitted to the conqueror, who showed great clemency and consideration. The only great severity that followed was the

execution of Mitsunari, Konishi and Otani, who were Christians and would not commit *harukiri*. Kato Kiyomasa who bore the lion's share of the work of pacification was rewarded with the province of Higo which had been forfeited by his enemy Konishi. On account of his bitter antipathy to Christians, the Jesuits hated him; but he became one of Japan's popular heroes and is even worshipped under the name of Seishoko. He it was that built the castle of Kumamoto which will be heard of again after the Great Restoration. Iyeyasu, being descended from the Minamoto family, was worthy of being raised to the rank of Shogun which he received duly at the hands of the Emperor in 1603. His own family title was Tokugawa, the name of his ancestral village. The failure of his great predecessors, Nobunaga and Hideyoshi to secure their power and position to their descendants taught him the need of making very elaborate precautions to secure the office and dignity of Shogun to his own line, and his efforts were so entirely successful that the Tokugawa was continued in uninterrupted and peaceful enjoyment of the Shogunate till in 1867 its last representative Yoshinobu resigned his power and position into the hands of the late Mikado. Iyeyasu removed the seat of the Executive Government from Kyoto to his own city of Yedo, thereby cutting himself off from the debasing and effeminate associations of the old capital. Strangely enough, after two years of office, when his glory was at its highest, he abdicated in favour of his son and retired to a place called Sumpu. From this place, however, he still continued to administer the more important affairs of State.

Attention must be turned now to the position of Christianity in the land. Iyeyasu for the first few years did not concern himself about the spread of the foreign religion. But he had shared in Taiko Sama's belief that it was fraught with danger to the State and devised serious measures to check it. In 1606 he issued a warning proclamation against people embracing the new faith. In spite of this the Christians continued their public displays and thus provoked him to sterner steps. Moreover, the English and the Dutch traders who were treated by him with especial consideration began to poison his mind against the general tendency of the Jesuits. An edict in 1614 was followed by the deportation of Jesuits to Nagasaki and of other Native Christians to Tsugaru, the northern extremity of the main island. A special department of State was created under the designation of the Christian Inquiry for the

purpose of compelling the Native Christians to give up their faith. The death of Iyeyasu in 1616 brought only added hardships to the Christians.

The following extract will suffice as an indication of the cruelties to which they were subjected.

"We read of Christians being executed in a barbarous manner in sight of each other, of their being hurled from the tops of precipices, of their being burned alive, of their being torn asunder by oxen, of their being tied up in rice bags which were heaped up together, and of the pile thus formed being set on fire. Others were tortured before death by the insertion of sharp spikes under the nails of their hands and feet, while some poor wretches by a refinement of horrid cruelty were shut up in cages and there left to starve with food before their eyes."

Nagasaki, being the stronghold of Christianity, was the scene of the utmost refinements of cruelty. As usually happens in such cases martyrdom was sought as a special favour from God, and even women and children welcomed their fate with sincere joy. More and more the persecution became serious, and in 1629 a particularly zealous Governor instituted a minute system of house-to-house search, which achieved the desired object pretty thoroughly. In 1637 occurred the Shimbara rebellion which may be regarded as the crowning act of this long tragedy. The insurgents were partly the discontented subjects of the Prince of Arima and partly Native Christians who had been driven to despair by persecution. They assembled in force and taking possession of an old fort at Hara began to fortify it and store provisions. The Shogun Iyemitsu the Great sent an army to reduce the fort which held out for 102 days. In this siege the besiegers were aided by the Dutch guns at Hirado. The Dutch have been blamed for their share in this transaction. The rebels were all put to death without mercy, and Christianity never lifted up its head again until the advent of more tolerant times.

In 1600 a Dutch ship came ashore on one of the southern islands of Japan, and its pilot William Adams, being a straightforward, resourceful man, was the means of obtaining for the Dutch important concessions. He won the favour of Iyeyasu by being useful in building ships and conducting business with foreigners. At his instance the Dutch, who visited Japan several times, were in 1611 promised protection and support in their trade. This trade grew rapidly. The English, led by Captain Saris, opened trade in 1613 at Hirado, but the enmity of the Dutch prevented progress, and the job was finally abandoned in 1623 after a loss of £40,000. The Dutch gained the ear of the Japanese Government

and partly out of trade jealousy, partly out of old political and religious feuds, gradually alienated the Shogun from the Portuguese and the Spanish merchants. In the end, in the year 1640 these latter were banished. But the suspicions of the people extended to all foreigners, and the Japanese Government increased the restrictions on trade and traders so much that even the Dutch were compelled to retire from most of the places where they had factories and confined to the little island of Deshima opposite Nagasaki. Thus Japan practically shut out Europe from her waters, and though at various times the Russians, Americans, and English tried to open negotiations, she remained in seclusion for over 200 years.

The story may pause here for a short account of the feudal system as it prevailed at this time. It originated at the time of Yoritomo who first appointed military chiefs to different parts of the Empire. These gradually absorbed the other powers also until they became practically absolute and even tried to set up independence. Tokugawa Iyeyasu, one of the greatest and wisest men that Japan has produced, reorganised this feudal system and so moulded it that it might secure the ascendancy of his own family. It must first be made clear, however, that the divine Emperor, though kept in seclusion, was always acknowledged as the fountain of power, and that the most powerful Shogun or Nobunaga or Hideyoshi never thought of doing away with the Emperor or usurping his style and dignity. The Emperor had his own court of which the highest posts were those of the *Kanpaku*, (Prime Minister), *Daijo Daijin* (Great Minister), *Udaijin*, (Minister of the Right), and *Sadaijin*, (Minister of the Left). The Shogun was the vassal of the Emperor and held his court at Yedo from 1603 onwards. He was to be a descendant of Iyeyasu in the lineal branch, and if that failed, he was to be chosen from one of three great families founded by three of Iyeyasu's sons and known as *Go-sanke*. They were the Princes of Owari, Kii, and Mito. Next after the *Go-sanke* in rank, dignity and power, came the *Kukushu* who were not vassals of the Shogun, but of the Emperor, and, when they visited the Shogun, were met by envoys and treated as honourable guests. Of these were 16, the most famous being Aizu, Ohoshu, and Satsuma. Below these there were the nobles known as *Kamon*. They were 19 in number and belonged to the Tokugawa stock. Then came the *Fudai* who for loyalty to Iyeyasu were eligible for high posts, and the *Tozama* who were not. There were also a few families on

whom for special services the honorific title of *matsudaira* was bestowed. Among the inferior nobility were the *Hatamoto* who owed allegiance directly to the Shogun and corresponded to the English baronets, and a slightly lower order called the *yokenin* also directly under the Shogun. Then came the gentry of Japan and her mainstay, the *Samurai*. They were retainers of the Shogun's vassals or daimyos and formed a special caste by themselves above the merchants, farmers and peasantry. They were exclusively the Kshatriyas of Japan. They were trained in Spartan simplicity and hardihood, and the physical culture they received was known as *jiu-jitsu*, its modern equivalent being the *judo* brought to perfection by Mr. Kano. They had a high code of honour which with some modifications forms to this day a system of practical ethics and is taught regularly in schools. It is known as *bushido*, and is an exact counterpart of the European code of chivalry though indeed like chivalry too it gradually degenerated in adverse times, and was often marred by pride, idleness, and brutality. Nevertheless much of the greatness and glory of Japan, both ancient and modern, is due to the Samurai; and though they no longer enjoy exclusive privileges, they have taken the chief share in the work of modern reconstruction and progress. When a member of the *Samurai* class ceased to be a vassal of his daimyo, he became a *Ronin* or free lance. Sometimes this was due to honorable causes, sometimes to dishonorable causes. A Samurai degraded from his rank became a *Ronin*. Often, however, whenever a deed of more than an ordinary risk and difficulty had to be done, failure in which would involve his master or community in disgrace or commit them too far, the Samurai would first disconnect himself from his society and become a *Ronin*. These *Ronins* play an important part in the relations of the Japanese to the Europeans.

The darkness that settled over Japan about the year 1640 when the exclusion of the foreigner was complete continued till 1853 when Commodore Perry with four large vessels anchored off Uraga near the modern Yokohama. He was sent by the United States to open the ports of Japan to American ships by peaceful negotiation supported by a display of force. The Americans were induced to do this by the discovery of gold in California which suddenly enhanced the importance of the trade route to Hongkong. This place is 6149 nautical miles from San Francisco; so that it became important to have a coaling station in Japan. The arrival of the foreign squadron gave

rise to a great commotion in the court of Yedo. The *bakufu* or the Shogun's Government tried to persuade Perry to proceed to Nagasaki and negotiate there as that was the only port open to foreigners. Finding him firm the *bakufu* asked for one year's time before giving an answer to the demands of America. The country split into two violent factions over this question, and for the first time during several centuries we hear of the Emperor's court at Kyoto coming out of its seclusion to take part in this all-important controversy. Its influence was cast against the opening of the country to foreigners, and this view commanded the support of the great body of feudal lords and the people. But the Shogun's Government, under the leadership of the masterful Ii-Kamon-no-kami, discerned the situation more truly and realised the danger to Japan in a refusal to admit foreigners. The party of admission was called *kai-koku*, and the party of exclusion was called *joi-i*. But another serious difference of opinion also divided the parties. The incompetence and misrule of the later Tokugawa Shoguns had estranged the powerful daimyos and the people in general who began to look back to the Emperor for the direct Government of the country. Jealousy and personal ambition added to the violence of this anti-Shogun feeling. An opinion had also grown up and gathered strength among the *literati* of the land that the Shoguns had only usurped power and abused it. The growth of learning had created in the people's minds a desire to re-establish Shintoism with the Emperor as the temporal as well as spiritual head. Thus the party of exclusion or *joi-i* was also the party of the Restoration or *Osei*, and, strange to say, it found a powerful leader in a Go-sanke Prince, the daimyo of Mito. In reply to a general call of opinion from all daimyos, this Prince sent to the *bakufu* a strangely worded document calling for the restoration of the executive powers to the Imperial family and a crusade against foreigners. But for a time his appeal was not successful, and in 1854 when Commodore Perry re-appeared, Ii Kamon secured the conclusion of a treaty at Shimoda opening that port and Hakodate to Americans. Similar treaties were made with England in 1854, with Russia in 1855 and Holland in 1856, and included the most-favoured-nation-clause. In 1857 the American representative Mr. Townsend Harris concluded with Ii Kamon the treaty of Kanagawa which, of course, was followed up by similar treaties with other foreign powers. As these continue to regulate the relations of Japan with the

foreign powers, it may be useful to give their more important provisions. Hakodate, Kanagawa, and Nagasaki were to be opened in 1859, Niigata in 1860, Hyogo, Yedo, and Osaka in 1863. The importation of opium was forbidden. Intoxicating liquors were charged 35 per cent. duty, and other articles 5 per cent. This tariff was open to revision after 1872. Diplomatic agents were to travel freely in the Empire, while other foreigners could do so only in particular areas. All foreigners were to remain within the jurisdiction of the respective consular agents. Cases in which they were defendants as against Japanese were to be tried by the Consular Courts, while those in which the Japanese were defendants as against foreigners were within the jurisdiction of the Native Courts.

The foreign powers concluded these treaties in the faith that the Shogun had full authority to treat with them and looked to his Government or the *Bakufu* for the due fulfilment of the articles. Among the Japanese, however, the Shogun's authority was widely questioned, and Ii Kamon-no-kami became specially unpopular on account of his avowed pro-foreign inclinations. He was a man of great strength of will and political sagacity. But his useful life was cut short in A. D. 1861 by assassination at the instigation, it is said, of the Prince of Mito whom he had compelled to retire from the Court of Yedo. He was succeeded in the regency by a son of the Prince of Mito called Hitotsunbashi. The new Regent was a man of peace and mature judgment and perhaps also shared the views of his House as to the authority of the Shogun. Nor were the assassinations and outrages confined to pro-foreign Japanese statesmen. Foreigners themselves were the especial hatred at this time of bodies of *Ronins* who wandered all over the country and gathered in force at the important places. From what has been said of the *Ronins* before, it is clear that the local daimyos would have no control over them, and the *Bakufu* was too feeble and disunited to keep them in perfect order. So that it is no wonder that the Japanese themselves call the period between 1859 and 1868 a period of perfect chaos. The *Bakufu* was all the same held responsible by the outraged foreign powers who do not appear to have either realised the difficulties of the Government or used their own advantageous position with moderation. The more spirited among the Japanese leaders, those who later on made their way to the forefront must have keenly felt the humiliating position of their nation at this time, but with wonderful self-control and single-mindedness they set about learning the

civilisation of the West and deserving the position of equality which they afterwards claimed and obtained from the European Powers. In 1861 Mr. Heusken, Secretary to the American Legation, was killed and the Bakufu paid a compensation of \$10,000 to his mother. The same year the British Legation was attacked, and the Government apologised and pleaded inability to guarantee the safety of foreigners unless they consented to be confined in the legations and protected. Next year *i.e.*, in 1862 a more serious attack was made on the British Legation and as two lives were lost, the British exacted an indemnity of £10,000. In view of the complications into which the presence of foreigners frequently led the Government, and of the increased price of provisions, the derangement of the currency and the threatening famine, the Government was anxious to postpone the opening of Hyogo, Yedo, and Osaka, and to secure this object, the first embassy from Japan to Western countries (if we except the Christian embassies to the Pope) was despatched in 1862. It included two members of the Choshu clan who were destined to rise to fame, Ito and Inouye. The object of the mission was achieved, the ports having to be opened only in 1868. More than that, the ambassadors had raised the esteem in which the Japanese were held by the great powers, and returned with a knowledge of the great strength and enlightenment of the West, and a firm conviction that Japan was quite unequal to a fight with Europe until she should have found a strong central government and patiently learned the lessons of European civilisation.

On their return in 1864 they found the country in a state of great confusion and excitement and their own clan at war with the Treaty Powers. In 1862 the Emperor had ordered a conference of daimyos to be held under the presidency of the Shogun at Yedo for settling the foreign question. The conference came to nothing. But while Shimazu, uncle and guardian of the Satsuma chief, was returning, his train fell in with a party of Englishmen. One of this party, Mr. Richardson, disobeyed the rule of the road in not dismounting or saluting as he passed the chief. He was struck down by one of Shimazu's retainers and soon after died of his wounds. The British demanded £100,000 damages from the Bakufu and £20,000 from Satsuma. The Bakufu complied, but Satsuma would not. So the English fleet attacked Kagoshima in 1863 and taught the clan a severe lesson, the batteries being completely destroyed and the whole town burnt down.

The lesson was not lost on the Satsuma chief who at once sent to Europe a batch of students for learning Western methods of war and Western institutions generally. Count Terashima and Mori Arinori were among them. The Imperial Court of Kyoto, however, continued ignorant and summoned a second conference to decide the foreign question in consultation with the Emperor himself. To this conference the Shogun himself went, thus practically surrendering his supremacy in executive administration and foreshadowing his eventual fall. The party of violence prevailed at this conference, and the Emperor commanded the Shogun to make preparations for the expulsion of the foreigner. The Shogun communicated the Imperial will to the Foreign Powers, but did nothing more, and it is said that Hitotsubashi even resigned office rather than carry out this foolish order. This hesitation did not suit the wilder spirits who gathered under the Choshu leader and declared war against the foreigners on their own account. Accordingly in 1863 an American, a French, and a Dutch vessel were fired on as they passed the Straits of Shimonoseki. A squadron of American and Dutch ships took signal vengeance by destroying the Choshu batteries. As if this was not sufficient, the Foreign Powers were organising a big expedition against Choshu when Ito and Inouye, having just returned from their embassy, tried to persuade their chief to submit. But they did not succeed, and the punitive expedition destroyed everything that could be found at Shimonoseki and exacted inordinately heavy penalties both from the Bakufu and from the offending daimyo. The whole of this proceeding was quite unjustifiable and is a signal example of the arrogant and overbearing manner in which foreigners carry on their relations with the weaker powers of the East. Choshu had, however, learned a bitter lesson and might be counted hereafter like Satsuma to correct the anti-foreign tendencies of the Imperial Court. Now also was laid the foundation of the future army of Japan trained in Western tactics and armed with Western implements, and not confined as till now to the *Samurai* gentry.

Besides these, other outrages on foreigners occurred with dangerous frequency, including the murder of two British officers. The Yedo Government, driven to despair, sent out an embassy to the French in 1864 proposing that Kanagawa should be closed and foreign trade confined to Hakodate and Nagasaki. In this, however, they failed utterly. In 1865 an event of some consequence occurred. The Shogun was at Osaka and

received the representatives of the Treaty Powers. It was suggested that the Emperor should be requested to ratify the treaties. The Shogun recommended the memorial, and the Emperor reluctantly consented to give his sanction to the treaties. Thus for a second time the supremacy of the Emperor even in civil affairs was tacitly acknowledged by the Shogun. In 1866 the Shogun died and was succeeded by his Regent Hitotsubashi under the name of Yoshinobu. A few months later the Emperor Komei also died and was succeeded by the Emperor Mutsuhito, A. D. 1867.

Towards the close of the same year the Prince of Toza wrote a strong letter to the Shogun exhorting him for the sake of the country's welfare to resign his powers into the hands of the Emperor. The Shogun felt the force of the appeal, and in a letter to his own vassals, said :

" It appears to me that the laws cannot be maintained in face of the daily extension of our foreign relations, unless the Government be conducted by one head, and I propose therefore to surrender the whole governing power into the hands of the Imperial Court. This is the best thing I can do for the interests of the Empire."

We have seen how a feeling of aversion to the Shogun's rule had grown up in the land and how people had begun to look once more to the Emperor. We have seen how his power had become weaker and weaker, and his situation more and more complicated. We have also seen how by his own act he had rendered himself unnecessary to the Treaty Powers who had secured their position by the Emperor's consent. Notwithstanding all this, we must remember that he was in possession of large and practically unlimited powers and in the enjoyment of a dignity second only to that of the Emperor, if at all, and which had descended to him through a long line of ancestors. Besides, as will appear later, he was still able, if he desired, to put forth a serious effort to recover lost ground. But he realised the needs of his country, and true to his own character and the traditions of the Mito family to which he belonged, he performed an act of self-abnegation to which it is not easy to find a parallel. The Emperor accepted his resignation, but requested him for a time to continue the administration. The Shogun retired to Osaka, and in January 1868 appeared an Imperial Edict abolishing the office of Shogun. The administration was given to a provisional government, and several departments were formed with powerful chiefs at the head of each. Thus the Go-iashin or the Great Revolution seemed to have been accomplished in peace.

But it was not to be so. The ex-Shogun's friends thought that he had been unjustly dealt with and moreover felt particularly insulted at the recall of the Choshu clan whom as rebels they had caused to be banished from the Imperial Court. Urged by them, but against his own better sense, the ex-Shogun raised the standard of rebellion and fought the Imperial troops on the roads between Osaka and Yedo. The victory fell to the Imperialists. The ex-Shogun did not continue the struggle long. Osaka was burnt to the ground, and at Yedo the ex-Shogun consented to surrender completely and live in seclusion at Sumpu, the residence of Iyeyasu. His followers held out a little long, and at Hakodate even endeavoured to establish a Republic. It was in July 1869 that the rebellion came to an end altogether.

As soon as the Provisional Government was formed, the Treaty Powers were informed of the momentous change, and invited to an audience before the restored Emperor. Except for a slight incident, the reception went off well, and the Emperor issued a strict edict threatening with severe penalties any act of violence to the foreigners whom henceforth His Majesty took under his especial protection. The ports of Hyogo, Osaka and Yedo had also opened as promised. The new year-period was called Meiji which means enlightened peace, and dates from January 1868. Events then moved quickly. The spirit animating the new Emperor and his advisers seemed to mark an incredible change in the whole character, aims, and methods of administration, and might be gathered from the words of the Charter Oath which the Emperor took before his court in 1869 and which on account of its supreme interest deserves to be reproduced in full :—

(1) A deliberative assembly shall be formed, and all measures decided by public opinion.

(2) The principles of social and political economics should be diligently studied by both the superior and inferior classes of our people.

(3) Every one in the community shall be assisted to persevere in carrying out his will for all good purposes.

(4) All the absurd usages of former times should be disregarded, and the impartiality and justice displayed in the workings of nature be adopted as the basis of action.

(5) Wisdom and ability should be sought after in all quarters of the world for the purpose of firmly establishing the foundations of the Empire,



JAPAN LEADERS.



TOKYO CELEBRATING THE FALL OF TSINGTAU.

The history of Japan from this point is one steadfast and strenuous endeavour to accomplish this noble programme. A striking outward manifestation of the new spirit was the removal in the same year of the capital from Kyoto to Yedo, brought about at the instance of the great statesman, Okudō Toschimichi of Satsuma. To this reference has already been made.

We now come to what is perhaps one of the most marvellous events in the history of any people. It is almost incredible that it is within the possibilities of human nature for a whole body of lords to surrender of their own free will, territories and powers which they had possessed for long ages, and yet this is what the Daimyos did at this wonderful period. A memorial to the Emperor prepared by Kido Takayoshi and signed by the Lords of Choshu, Satsuma, Tosa and others contained the following eloquent passage.

"The place where we live is the Emperor's land and the food which we eat is grown by the Emperor's men. How can we make it our own? We now reverently offer up the lists of our possessions and men with the prayer that the Emperor will take good measures for rewarding those to whom reward is due and taking from those to whom punishment is due. Let the Imperial orders be issued for altering and remodelling the territories of the various classes. Let the civil and penal codes, the military laws... all proceed from the Emperor. Let all the affairs of the Empire, great and small, be referred to him."

The example of these great Barons was followed by nearly all the others, and in 1871 the feudal system was abolished by Imperial decree, the daimates being replaced by prefectures or *ken*. To make the change gradual the first prefects were the daimyos themselves, but soon their incompetency led to their being replaced by men of merit and capacity. The Government undertook to compensate the feudal lords and the bodies of *Samurai* whom they had hitherto maintained, and it had to incur for this purpose a debt of \$65,100,000. Of these *Samurai*, Mr. Prothero writes:

"Nothing probably in the whole course of this remarkable Revolution is more striking than the unselfish patriotism which led the bulk of these men—there were four hundred thousand of them—warriors by birth and tradition, sensitive to anything like dishonour, to give up their swords and their class privileges, and to become ordinary citizens. The nobles retained high positions and ample incomes; but their retainers surrounded almost all that hitherto had seemed to make life worth living."

The year 1871 saw two more events of significance. The classes called *eta* and *heimin* that had been labouring under disabilities were placed on the same legal footing as the rest of the people.

The famous Iwakura embassy was sent this year for the purposes of securing a revision of the treaties which placed Japan in a sort of inferiority to European Powers, and of studying the institutions of the West. It consisted of Prince Iwakura, Kido Takayoshi, Okudō Toschimichi, Ito Hirobumi, and Yamaguchi Naoyoshi.

The revision of the treaties was not possible, but the embassy returned in 1873 with a vast mass of information which greatly quickened men's reforming ideas, though it pointed in no single direction. In 1872 universal military service was made obligatory. The first railway was opened at the same time between Yokohama and Tokyo. The promise of popular Government made in the first clause of the Charter Oath could not be fulfilled yet, as the leading statesmen felt that the time had not come to take the people into partnership in the State. The *Kogisho*, the first deliberative assembly called in the Meiji era, did not give satisfaction, nor did its successors. In 1873 Count Itagaki presented a petition asking for representative institutions. The petition was refused, but some cautious steps in advance were taken. The local governors were summoned to Tokyo to advise on matters of local interest. In 1875 a Senate called *Genro-in* consisting of high officials and leading men was formed. Some diplomatic transactions in which Japan maintained her position and prestige belong to this date. The people of Formosa had killed some islanders of Loo-choo who were vassals of Japan and had been wrecked on the Formosan coast. An expedition under Saigō Tsugumichi brought the Formosans to their senses, and China which claimed sovereignty over Formosa agreed to pay an indemnity for the cost of the expedition in 1874. An old boundary-dispute between Japan and Russia in the Island of Saghalien was settled in 1875 by Japan giving up her claims in Saghalien in return for Russia giving up hers to the Kurile Islands. The Koreans unexpectedly attacked a Japanese ship which applied for coal and provisions on their coasts. General Kuroda Kiyataka was at once sent out with a squadron in 1876. The Koreans were glad to come to an understanding and concluded a treaty of amity and commerce.

Between 1874 and 1877 there were several small disturbances and one formidable rebellion. The forces of discontent and reaction, added to some real distress among the old samurai and ronins, found expression in the provinces that had always in Japanese history been scenes of rebellion and bloodshed,—Choshu and Satsuma. The first

ones were easily put down, but the one under the popular hero of the Samurai, Saigo Takamori, shook the young Government to its centre. The rebels wasted time in the siege of Kumamoto built by Kato Kiyomasa, and the *delvry* enabled the Imperial forces to be collected and despatched to its relief. This done, the rebel army fought several determined battles, but was obliged finally to surrender in A.D. 1877. Saigo, after holding out for a while, was reduced to great straits and requested one of his friends to sever his head from his body. The death of this idol of Japanese chivalry was avenged by the assassination in 1878 of one of the best patriots of the day, Okubo Toshimichi. This great statesman had just secured the institution of local assemblies in the prefectures and larger cities as a preparation for a further step in popular Government. In 1881 the Emperor published an edict in which he definitely undertook to establish a Parliament in 1890. The constitution therefore was the subject of eager discussion everywhere. Ito Hirobumi proceeded once more to Europe to study the constitutions of different States. He returned with a mass of material on which he was labouring for years while several minor steps were being taken against the great event. In 1884 the peerage was remodelled on Western lines,—Princes, Marquises, Counts, Viscounts and Barons. Next year a Cabinet was formed and in 1888 a Privy Council, of each of which, as it was formed, Count Ito became President. Civil and Criminal Laws were also codified and humanised in this period of activity. Finally in February 1889, the new Constitution was duly proclaimed, and the Imperial Diet met for the first time in 1890. We cannot give here an idea of the Japanese Constitution as it will take up too much space. The Emperor appears to have far greater powers under it than constitutional monarchs elsewhere. In the third year of the Diet the Marquis of Ito's ministry was defeated on the question of increased military expenditure and also impeached. The Emperor then intervened with a message of singular moderation, conciliation, and self-sacrifice. The following is an extract from it:

"We have ordered the expenditure of our household to be cut down, so that we may be able to contribute a yearly sum of yen 300,000 for the next six years to the necessary equipment of national defences. We have at the same time ordered all officers and officials in our service to contribute, unless excused by us for exceptional reasons, one-tenth of their salaries, for the same period of years, towards the expenses of naval construction. We depend therefore, on the co-operation, along constitutional lines, of ministers and representatives,

in the accomplishment of our great national tasks; and we call upon our people, one and all, to do their duties in this matter."

The message gave, it is said, an electric shock to the nation, and of course had the desired effect. The adoption of constitutional Government was signalised by the conclusion in 1894 of a new treaty between England and Japan which in consideration of the opening of Japan to trade, put an end to the rights of extra-territoriality of the British settlements, abolished the consular jurisdictions, and handed them over to the native courts. The other Treaty Powers speedily followed the example. This consummation, so long struggled for, was naturally rejoiced over in Japan as it marks her full admission to the comity of nations. The feelings on the occasion of the Mikado and his government may be guessed from the following weighty words:

"Considering that the revised treaties are now about to come into force, we may regard this movement with joy and hearty satisfaction; and while on the one hand we recognise the responsibilities which the altered state of things imposes on the Empire, on the other we hope that the new conditions will contribute to build up our friendly relations with the Powers on a basis yet firmer than before. We expect therefore, from our loyal subjects, ever ready as they are to discharge their public duties, that, in accordance with our wishes and the enlightened principles of our national policy, they will without exception receive in a kindly spirit the strangers who come to us from distant lands, and will thus strive to raise the national reputation and maintain the dignity of the Empire."

Apt learners as the Japanese are reputed to be, their mastery of the art of constitutional Government has been slow, if even now it could be asserted to be complete. At first, as was only to be expected, the parties had no dividing lines of policy, but grouped themselves round personalities. Counts Itagaki and Okuma, for example, led groups respectively called Liberals and Progressists, though no clear demarcation of principles could be made between them. They were alike in opposing the Government of the day, whose pace in the march to full constitutionalism was too slow for them. In reality the Cabinet was no less desirous than they were of progress, but had to move cautiously. Under the leadership of Ito, chief of the *genro* or elder statesmen, the successive steps forward were taken wisely and in order. But mistakes were unavoidable and the ministry was subject to many shocks. One of these was so severe that the famous Li Hung Chung of China thought it a favourable occasion for depriving Japan of the voice she had gained in controlling the affairs of Korea. In 1894 a crisis occurred

in the Government of this "independent" kingdom, which by its ineptitude and venality had provoked a violent rebellion. China, being appealed to for help, sent a force and, in accordance with a subsisting treaty, duly notified Japan of her move. But in doing so, she described Korea as a tributary power and seemed determined to exercise suzerain authority to the exclusion of Japan. Resentment ran high in Tokyo, domestic discord was hushed, and the nation was united in a resolve to vindicate her prestige. A force larger than China's was promptly despatched and took up quarters near Seoul, the Korean capital. An incident, such as seldom fails to happen on these occasions, led to a formal declaration of war. Japan's blows were swift and decisive. Two land battles and a naval engagement near the mouth of the Yalu river enabled her to carry the war into Manchuria. The campaign lasted six months during which the triumph of the Japanese arms was uninterrupted and Port Arthur was captured. The road to Peking lay open and the march of the victorious army had begun, when the proud Li Hung Chang proceeded in person to sue for peace. The treaty of Shimonoseki, signed in April 1895, provided, besides a large war indemnity and certain commercial privileges, that China should renounce for ever her pretensions of suzerainty over Korea and that the peninsula of Liao Tung including Port Arthur and Formosa and the Pescadore islands should be ceded to Japan. The jealousy of certain European powers, however, deprived her of the greatest of these advantages. Russia, France and Germany, the last of which had yet acquired no substantial interest in China, joined together to put diplomatic pressure on the Japanese Government, which was too exhausted to offer effective resistance and thought it safe to surrender Port Arthur and the Liao Tung peninsula. Three years later, Russia acquired Port Arthur and other privileges from a prostrate China. Japan, as we shall see, nursed the insult till she could avenge it signally.

The year 1900 brought her an opportunity. During the troubles brought on by the Boxer rising in China, she held back till the Powers were obliged to call her in, and the reserve and dignity of her conduct and the almost exemplary discipline of her soldiery won her their respect and admiration.

The far-seeing and cautious diplomacy of Great Britain saw the enormous advantage of an alliance with the rising Power of the East, and in 1902 was concluded the Anglo-Japanese alliance

which is now in the titanic conflict of Europe of inestimable benefit to the Allied Powers. By this alliance each party was bound to consult the other fully and frankly in all matters involving their interests, to remain neutral when the other was at war with a single Power and to assist the other when at war with more than one Power.

Domestic politics never ran smooth except when the state was menaced with external danger. The *genro* or Elder Statesmen, on whom the Mikado relied entirely, were practically omnipotent in administration, and Government by the Diet existed only in name, so long as the Cabinet were responsible to the Emperor and could defy the majority in the Diet to do their worst. The *genro* being mostly composed of the leaders of the chief clans, particularly the Satsuma and Choshu clans of historic fame, their power came to be hated as the clan-government, and Counts Itagaki and Okuma in vain hurled their forces at its citadel. Once indeed in 1898, yielding to the advice of Marquis Ito, the Mikado summoned them to form a Cabinet in combination, but they did not hold together long. In 1900, Ito who had kept aloof from parties, himself formed a party called the *Seiyūkai*, association of friends of the constitution, which he led for three years, being succeeded by another highly respected member of the *genro*, Marquis Saionji. This party has generally commanded a majority in the Diet, and, while not exempt from the vicissitudes to which political organizations are subject in a state where party Government has not yet securely established itself, may be said to be the most powerful political school in Japan. It has gradually absorbed the Liberals and adopted the principle of ministerial responsibility to the Diet while the cry of party Cabinets is the peculiar mark of the Progressists.

No squabbles in the Diet, however, could arrest the phenomenal growth in the prosperity and enlightenment of the Japanese people. Everything that science and organization could do was applied to the internal development of the country's resources, and we find her commerce with the outside world growing by leaps and bounds. A well-devised system of education increased the national efficiency many times over, while strengthening in an extraordinary degree the peculiarly national virtues of pride of country and patriotism.

The restless aggression of Russia in Manchuria was a standing threat to the independence of Korea. Japan therefore joined Great Britain.

and the United States in extracting from Russia a promise to evacuate Manchuria in three instalments at three fixed periods. The promise was not kept. Backed by the moral support of her allies, Japan carried on negotiations with Russia, but could make no impression on the unyielding diplomacy of the great northern empire. Instead of withdrawing from Manchuria or giving the required guarantees of the independence of China and Korea and of "the open door" everywhere, Russia only despatched additional men-of-war and forces to the East. Neither self-respect nor patience could hold out longer. Japan for her part had not been idle. Knowing her enemy well, she had made every preparation for war and taken every precaution. The enthusiasm of the people knew no bounds. The Navy and the Army were alike eager for the supreme test. Once more political dissensions were laid aside and every nerve was strained in the country's cause. As soon as it became clear that war was inevitable, the coolness and calculation of Admiral Togo prevented the junction of the scattered detachments of the Russian fleet and secured the undisputed command of the sea. When war was actually declared, therefore, Japan was able to land her armies when and where she chose. The world rang during 1904 and the greater part of 1905 with stories of the reckless valour and ecstatic self-sacrifice of Japanese soldiers, while the thoroughness and precision of the arrangements that had been made in all the details of campaigning was the wonder of the older Powers of the West. Port Arthur, believed to be as impregnable as science could make any fortress, fell after a protracted siege by land and by sea, adding immeasurably to the reputation of the victor. Manchuria was the scene of the land operations, the opposed armies meeting for mortal combat in no fewer than six great battles. One of these engagements, that of Liao-Yung, lasted nine days, while the most sanguinary and famous battle of the war, that of Mukden, raged for fourteen days. The victories fell to Japan, but were gained at too great cost. But a dramatic triumph was in store for her. Soon after the partial destruction of the Russian fleet and its signal defeat near the Yalu, the Czar's advisers ordered the Baltic fleet to proceed to the Pacific under the command of Admiral Rozhdestvenski. Naval critics were full of misgivings as to its fate. The Japanese admiral had made a perfect secret of his tactics. Expectation had been raised to the highest pitch,

when almost suddenly the news was flashed round the world that the fleets had engaged each other in the straits of Tsushima and that the Russian fleet had been destroyed. Trafalgar had not been more decisive.

Both parties were sorely in need of rest, when the President of the United States offered to mediate. The ambassadors met at Portsmouth in New Hampshire in August 1905, and the treaty was signed in September. The principal terms were: Korea was acknowledged to be within Japan's sphere of influence; the Liao-Tung peninsula with Port Arthur was ceded to her; Russia was to give away the southern half of Saghalien and the control of the southern section of the Manchurian railway; she was also to evacuate southern Manchuria and transfer to Japan all the privileges she had obtained from China. It will be seen that Japan got practically nothing by this costly and exhausting war which she had not already won by the Chinese War of 1894-95. The burdens laid on the people by the war and by the greatly increased army and navy rendered necessary by her new possessions and entanglements were oppressive.

The administration of Korea was a great problem. The effects of long years of misrule could not be easily effaced. The people were suspicious and resentful, and the wilder spirits fancied it their duty to resist the reforms that Japanese statesmen introduced into the administration. Count Inouye, Viscount Muira and Baron Komura had successively represented her at the Korean capital, and now after the Russian war, the Mikado appointed Prince Ito himself Resident-General at Seoul. The aged statesman entered on his task with characteristic energy; but as the indefinite conditions of a protectorate did not give him a free hand, the old Emperor of Korea was forced to abdicate and in the minority of the next heir and successors, Prince Ito exercised unchecked authority. In the progress of this beneficent and humane task, he met his death by the hand of an assassin in 1909. Thus in tragedy closed one of the most remarkable lives in the history of the human race. Few sons of man have done greater things or left more honoured memories behind. Korea was formally annexed in 1910.

The same year Japan adopted a highly protective tariff, which caused much stir among the commercial nations of the world. Its effects however, were modified, so far as Great Britain was concerned, by a special treaty of commerce. At about the same time in 1911 the alliance

between these two powers, which had been found advantageous to both sides, was renewed for another ten years. The one new condition was that "if either of the contracting parties was at war with a Power with which it had a treaty of arbitration, neither of the parties should be under an obligation to give its support." Obviously this provision was intended to avert the complications that were apprehended as a result of the strained relations between the United States and Japan over the treatment of emigrants from the latter country into the former.

The good Emperor Mutsu-Hito, whose long reign called the Meiji Era began in 1868, died in 1912. Restored in his own person to the actual powers of Emperor, of which his house had for centuries been deprived, Mutsu-Hito had witnessed and had himself been "a part" of many wonderful transformations which may be summed up as the growth of a nation from infancy to full adolescence. The grief of the nation at his death was most profound, and various were the ways in which it expressed itself. But the most startling and the most characteristic expression was the suicide of General Nogi the hero of Port Arthur and Mukden on the occasion of the funeral. No gift of sympathetic imagination will enable one to understand fully the extraordinary contempt of life that the Japanese display on unexpected occasions. *Harakiri*, however, is an ordinary incident in their annals and need not surprise any one who remembers that twenty eminent officers of the army disembowled themselves in *Samurai* fashion when they learned that the premature conclusion of the peace of Shimonoseki in 1895 prevented their march on Peking. The Empress had borne no child; Mutsu-Hito's successor, in the most ancient and one

of the most illustrious of the thrones on the face of the earth, Yoshi-Hito, is his son by one of his other consorts. The new era will be known as the Taisho or Great Resolutions. A severe Cabinet crisis occurred soon after the new Emperor's accession. The war minister made a demand of money for two fresh army divisions for the defence of Korea. The Cabinet by an overwhelming majority refused the grant. The war minister resigned, and his place could not be filled up, for the law required that his portfolio should be held by an officer of the Army and the Army boycotted the ministry. The Premier, Marquis Saionji, was obliged to resign. He was succeeded by Prince Katsura, who had to withdraw in a few days owing to the violence of popular clamour. His successor in the Prime-Minister's position was Admiral Count Yamamoto who in his turn has given place to Count Okuma. This great statesman, held in great estimation by the people for his independence, love of democracy, and zeal for education, has, except for two brief periods, never held office before. Great expectations are entertained that his tenure of office will be marked by the overthrow of clan-government and the firm establishment of a truly democratic administration.

The last few years have been marked by acute controversy with the United States Government. California has by express legislation excluded the Japanese along with other Asiatics, and the proud and sensitive nation keenly resent it. In spite of President Wilson's strong disapprobation, the State law continues in operation; but unpleasantness has been averted for the time being by an understanding that a certain number of Japanese shall be allowed to enter annually.

THE "JAPAN DAILY MAIL" ON "THE INDIAN REVIEW."

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BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY

BY MR. T. E. WELBY.

It is the German case against us that Great Britain has persistently stood in Germany's way, needlessly thwarted legitimate German ambitions and finally created a great league of Powers against that blameless and pacific country. The charge is of course too preposterous for elaborate refutation. But it is well worth while reviewing British foreign policy during the last forty years or so to see where and how Great Britain has been at variance with Germany.

Friction really began in 1875. At that date, to the extreme disgust of Germany, France had made a marvellous recovery from her downfall, and in the early part of this year she had increased her army by adding a fourth battalion to every regiment in the French army. At the same time in France, as in every other country where there were Roman Catholics, there was being heard some sharp criticism of the policy of Germany towards Romanist interests. Bismarck, who deplored not having "bled France white," professed to believe the utterly senseless story that France was seeking to create a Romanist league against Germany. But this pretence was not taken seriously by the Germans themselves, and there was little disguise of the fact that Germany contemplated a second war against France simply in order to crush her for ever and thus repair the omission of 1870-71, when her power of recuperation had been underestimated. At this juncture, both Great Britain and Russia intervened. The full story is not yet known. Readers of the memoirs of contemporary diplomats are well aware, however, that Lord Derby gave definite assurances to the French *charge d'affaires* in London and that Lord Odo Russell, the British Ambassador in Berlin, spoke plainly to Bismarck on the subject. Bismarck professed complete innocence. Whereupon Lord Odo Russell dryly requested the Chancellor to censure the German Ambassadors in London, Paris and St. Petersburg, who had been guilty of the error of misleading foreign governments as to German intentions. For once Bismarck had no retort.

Thereafter for some years Anglo-German relations were not seriously strained. Bismarck was busy in the formation of the Triple Alliance. Here unfortunately Great Britain, through an indiscretion of Lord Salisbury, contributed to his success. The Chancellor was aware of the diffi-

culty of getting Italy into the Alliance. He resolved to play on her jealousy of French colonial expansion and he cunningly intimated to Lord Salisbury that Germany would not object to French occupation of Tunis, to which Italy had sentimental claims, and thus elicited the British statesman's approval in advance. When Italy protested, British diplomacy evidently failed to reveal in Rome the fact that the suggestion had come from Berlin.

The time had now come when Germany could enter on a colonial policy of her own, to which till then Bismarck had entertained some objection. The Germans had been annoyed by British annexation of Walvisch Bay in 1878. In 1883 further trouble arose in South-West Africa. A certain German merchant had purchased a large piece of land at Angra Pequena, on the west and about 200 miles from the Orange River. This man appealed for German protection. The German Government enquired whether Great Britain would guarantee him protection. Now obviously Great Britain was under no moral or other obligation to undertake his protection. Equally obviously she could not allow Germany to exact from her a free hand to take "protective" measures, probably culminating in annexation in the event of trouble with the native tribes. Lord Granville after many delays made that clear. The German elections were then on, and a great deal of ill-feeling was therefore excited. The rebuff Bismarck had received was used as a bit of party capital. In the end Great Britain yielded, and so began the building up of German South-West Africa. On the east also friction arose, over Delagoa Bay, but here even Mr. Gladstone's Government could not yield. Mr. Gladstone nevertheless was friendly to German colonial expansion, so long as it did not seriously interfere with vested British interests, and in a well known speech he wished it "God speed." The other great British statesman of the period, Lord Salisbury, was still friendlier, and in fact was much too complaisant, chiefly because in those days he regarded Germany as a check on Russia. The agreement he concluded with Germany in 1890 was distinctly one-sided, for the transfer of Heligoland was a strategic error of the first magnitude, and all that Germany really conceded in Africa was the acknowledgment of British claims that could not have been dis-

puted. However, the avoidance of further friction in Africa was a considerable advantage, though only a temporary one, and the British acquisition of Bechuanaland had driven a wedge between German territory and the Boer Republics. There was some excuse for hoping that there would be no more trouble in Africa.

Trouble followed nevertheless. The Jameson raid drew from the Kaiser the historic telegram to President Kruger, and there is now no doubt that if Germany had possessed a strong fleet in 1896 there would have been an Anglo-German War. In 1897-98 the policies of Great Britain and Germany in the Far East were seen to be in some opposition, but the South African War soon put all other subjects out of mind. The fury of the German people against Great Britain took extreme and repulsive forms. How far the Kaiser was with his people is uncertain, but he seized the opportunity to develop his naval policy. From that moment, this war became almost inevitable, for Germany had entered on a naval rivalry which in the end could only result in either a conflict with Great Britain or the admission to the German people that the enormous expenditure had been merely to gratify vanity.

The British response, after the war, was the cultivation of specially cordial relations with France and later on with France's ally, Russia. The *Entente Cordiale*, developed later into the *Triple Entente*, had no offensive edge; it was purely defensive, and Great Britain steadily refrained from embodying it in any compact for military and naval co-operation. On the eve of this war she was still not bound to assist France or Russia with men or money in war. The fact was known to the whole world, and it was generally supposed by German statesmen that as a matter of fact she would keep out of the war—which makes it peculiarly absurd for the German Press to allege that Great Britain was in any sense conspiring against Germany, for the first step in a conspiracy would have been a very definite military and naval convention, with a binding promise to stand together in war.

We were, however, anticipating. In 1905, immediately after the beginning of the Anglo-French understanding, came Germany's blustering entrance into the Moroccan question. Its object was plain: Great Britain and France were to be separated. France had to yield, but she at once voted £60 million for military purposes. Germany replied by constructing strategic railways towards the Belgian frontier. At the Algeiras Conference the German attempt to drive a wedge between England and France was renewed, without success. In 1908 came the crisis caused by the Austro-Hungarian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the German ultimatum to Russia, who, being unready in a military sense after the Russo-Japanese War, had to yield as France had done three years earlier.

The policy of bluster was developing apace, but still Great Britain hoped for an understanding with Germany. The limitation of armaments was seriously discussed. The 1911 Morocco crisis was the next and most dangerous German attempt to split the *Triple Entente*. At length Great Britain was forced to the verge of war, but Germany was not ready. At least, she hoped that three or four years later she would be relatively stronger, for her naval programme was increasing and the work on the Kiel Canal was in progress. As a matter of fact she miscalculated. But Great Britain once more raised the question of "a naval holiday," or pause in construction, and during the Balkan crisis Great Britain co-operated with Germany. The huge increase in the peace strength of the German Army evolved no reply from the British. In the face of every indication that Germany was making ready for war, Great Britain cherished the hope of improving Anglo-German relations. On the 1st January 1914 Mr. Lloyd George actually announced that the moment was peculiarly favourable for the reduction of British naval and military expenditure. At the last Great Britain deferred action until it was almost too late. But in German eyes she was plotting against Germany.

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GERMAN DIPLOMACY:—1870-1914

BY PROF. R. M. STATHAM, B.A.,

ACTING PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT COLLEGE, KUMBAKONAM.

BRIEFLY Prussian diplomacy of the seventies resulted in an understanding with Russia and Italy, the successful fomenting of friction between England and France, France and Russia, Russia and Austria, Austria and Italy, the isolation and destruction of Austria, the annihilation of France, the acquiring of Kiel, with all its intense significance to future history, union and Empire, the Three Emperors League, and the Triple Alliance.

In sharp contrast Prussian diplomacy of the nineties and "tens" has resulted in the *Entente Cordiale*, the good understanding between Russia, France and England, the alienation of Italy, the isolation of Germany and Austria against a world combination of the British Empire, France, Russia, Belgium, Japan, Serbia, Montenegro, with the hostile neutrality of Portugal and Italy and the distrust of the world. To add Turkey to the German alliance would only be an insult to the sick man who has been forcibly held in his bed, and operated on against his will.

That England should have been thrown into the arms of Russia—her greatest rival in past international politics in the near and far-east; and that the *Entente Cordiale* should have been substituted for "Perfidious Albion" is sufficient proof either of wanton diplomacy or egregious folly.

Not only was Bismarck great enough to carve out an empire by diplomacy and war, but he was wise enough to foresee the result of Germany's obsession.*

The Iron Chancellor warned his country and his Emperor, shortly before he died. One might almost apply to his successors the phrase which Cunningham applied to the Stuarts "They did not limit their projects with due regard to their resources"

If the inner history of the war has done one thing more than another it has emphasized once

* "I am only sorry for my poor country."

"It will be a bad day for Europe when Russia produces a statesman who would not hesitate to sacrifice the loss of a million men."

"What it states is True" (said with reference to an article in the *Contemporary Review* which foretold the Kaiser's present megalomania and diplomacy.)

more the intrepid and masterly diplomacy of Bismarck. If men are to be judged by results, then Bismarck stands first on the scroll of fame. The great ones of the earth had hitherto either carried their countries' glory with them to the grave, like Napoleon, or exhausted their states by the magnitude of their success like Louis XIV. But Bismarck having created a polity for his nation lived to see the fruits of his work, and stood aside while the seeds of a new policy were carelessly sown. Was ever such a record? To understand the true significance of the contrast in method we must turn back to 1850.

The most remarkable feature of international politics in the latter half of the 19th century was the rise of Prussia in the decade, 1860-1870. How far this was due almost entirely to the efforts of one man is, perhaps, best seen in the condition of Germany before Bismarck came into power.

In 1850 Austria dominated a German confederation, Prussia was treated not as an ally, but as a subordinate to be dictated to.* And it is obvious, from their attitude in 1866 and again in 1870, that the other European powers considered Prussia of little importance, and likely to collapse under the threats of France and Austria.

Briefly Bismarck had the following aims in view to restore Prussian prestige (it is to be noted that he started with national and not imperial ideas), to oust Austria from the leadership in Germany, and to cement national solidarity by a bold, and if necessary, aggressive policy. The means, which he had at his disposal, were, roughly, a Machiavellian grasp of diplomacy, the inherited spirit of Prussian Militarism, and the engine free to all empire builders—war—.

"He was" he said at one time "vaguely aware that he wanted war." Indirectly the attainment of his object meant the humiliation of Austria and France, leaving no rival on the continent.

His remarks in 1866 and then later in his life are so well-known that I must apologise for introducing them here:—

That a war with France would succeed with a war with Austria lay in the logic of history.

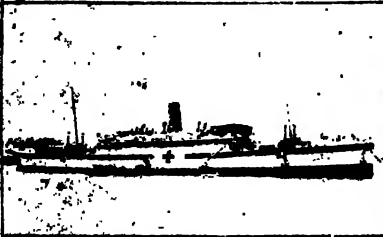
* Compare the treaty of Olmütz (November 1850).



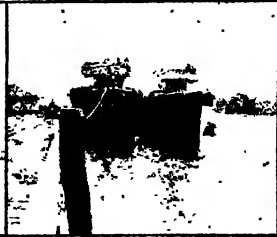
THE LATE EARL ROBERTS.

THE DOMINIONS BACK UP THE MOTHERLAND

Germany has to fight not merely the geographical area of the United Kingdom — she has to face a united, world-wide Empire.



INDIAN RED CROSS HOSPITAL SHIP MADRAS
Empowered by the Madras Prætor, for India's troops.



Protected by HAMMOCKS, some SHEETS
HUMAN Yarn and Pannet at New Guinea.



TASMANIAN (1st) CONTINGENT LEAVING HOBART
Which is the most southerly port of the Commonwealth.



GUARDING A BRIDGE IN N.W.
Australia is taking no risks.



CYLON - GINGALESE GIRLS AS BRITANNIA AND HER ALLIES
In a tableau at Singapore the pretty subjects of Ceylon.



DR. MAHMUD HUSSEIN
On board the Hospital Ship Madras.



AUSTRALIAN BATTALION UNDER CANVAS AT SYDNEY
The Australians are essentially a martial people, and have adopted universal service.



RHODESIAN (1st) CONTINGENT MARCHING TO THE DRILL HALL BULAWAYO
The men gathered at Bulawayo and Gwelo and passed through Bulawayo with a dead end.



AUSTRALIAN CAVALRY RECRUITS DRILLING AND RECRUITS MARCHING TO THE EXPEDITIONARY CAMP AT LIVERPOOL (N.S.W.)



I did not doubt that a Franco-German war must take place before the construction of a united Germany could take place.*

"Monarchy as understood in Germany" said Acton "is not as we understand it the condition under which a nation secures self-government: it is not government by law but government by authority."

But it has been a bye-law of German unity that it should be thoroughly Prussianised. Even to-day Prussia has a veto in the constitution by reason of her absolute majority in the Bundesrath.

Such were Bismarck's aims, such his reasons. It is of his diplomacy that we wish principally to speak. The history of Prussian militarism is too well-known to need detailing here. The characters of its founder and his successors are sufficient witness to its stability and permanence.

The great elector found a militia and left an army. He was the arch-priest of opportunism, autocracy and militarism. His son, "the Drill Sergeant" raised the troops from 38,000 to 80,000. To "Don't Care's" mad father Prussia owes more than history has cared to acknowledge. He did not, like his successors, attempt to share in the domain of the world politics, but in domestic policy he was "Prussia's greatest king." He practised rigid economy in a way which alone enabled Prussia to support an army out of all proportion to her size. His son earned for himself the title of Great by his courage and military genius. He nurtured the harvest which Roon, Moltke and Bismarck were to reap. Not even the onslaughts of Napoleon nor the incompetence of his successors were powerful to break the tradition, which still guides Germany to-day.

Fearless decisions were characteristic of Bismarck. He saw that only by the sword could the Austrian domination be overthrown, and did not shrink from the task before him. He knew that others would not dare to follow where he trod, so his first concern was to make himself and his master absolute in Prussia. This done, and liberalism defeated, Prussian foreign policy was his own. Abroad circumstances favoured Bismarck, but he made the best possible use of them. He befriended Russia during the Polish rising of 1863, and thus ensured her neutrality both in 1866 and 1870. France and Napoleon were successfully kept out of the way as the result of the famous interview at Biarritz in October 1865. In the following year Italy engaged to attack her life-long enemy Austria—if Prussia should declare war

within three months (April 8, 1866). Thus skillfully did Bismarck prepare to strike at an isolated Austria. Italy had indeed recently offered to buy Venetia, but Austria had imprudently refused. She now hurriedly attempted to reopen negotiations but found that conciliation was too late. Bismarck's final stroke of diplomacy was to inveigle Austria into declaring war, thus pretending, in the eyes of Europe, that Austria was the aggressor. After Sadowa, Napoleon the Third disclosed a little of his real Bonapartist aims for France in demanding from Prussia the cession of the Rhenish Palatinate and the province of Hesse Darmstadt south of the Rhine. This Bismarck refused almost at the point of the sword,* and successfully brought the most recalcitrant member, Bavaria, into the union by revealing France's designs on her territory. The most remarkable feature of Bismarck's diplomacy is its foresight. The triple alliance was foreshadowed after 1866, by the cession of Venetia to Italy, and the extraordinary leniency shown to Austria.

He recognised the necessity for placating these two with a view to the isolation of France in the near future.

After the Austrian War the French were suddenly alive to their own danger, and their inglorious failure to dominate Europe once more, as they had hoped to do, after Prussia and Austria had been weakened by prolonged conflict. Austria was essential as an ally but "Austria would not move without Italy, would not move that is, with Italy hostile in its rear. France and Italy were divided by Rome."†

It should be remembered that in spite of Bismarck's recognition of the necessity for a war with France, it was France herself who from 1866 onwards attempted by military preparations, by intrigues and alliances to strike a blow at German unity before it was too late. The real situation was this, that when once Bismarck realised the intentions of Napoleon,‡ he determined to use his diplomacy in such a way that war would ensue, but as the result of French initiative.

The Hohenzollern candidature for the Spanish throne provided the necessary opportunity and in spite of Leopold's withdrawals and King William's conciliatory attitude, the War Party in France, the French and German Press, and Bismarck's

* Vide Bismarck's letter to Moltke at this juncture.

† Acton.

‡ Compare Napoleon's personal intrigues with the Austrian Emperor for a concerted attack on Prussia.

* Bismarck's reminiscences.

careful "doctoring" combined to open the war. Of Bismarck's deliberate intent to foment war, there can be little doubt. He despatched both agents and money to Spain, and wavered between deep depression and high spirits as the tide turned against or in favour of war. With war once declared Bismarck reaped the reward for his diplomacy of the last ten years. England was neutral; almost sympathetic; Russia proved an active friend by restraining Austria's support of France; and though Italy rejected the offer of Nice, Savoy and the Roman territory, she was forced into neutrality by the fanaticism of the French Court.

The success of his policy lay in its concealment. England at any rate had little suspicion of the methods employed. But Bismarck had still one more arrow in his diplomatic quiver, a proved weapon. The unguarded utterances of Napoleon at Biarritz in 1865, and of the French ambassador in 1867, were published in the *Times* shortly after the French had declared war.

At Biarritz Napoleon would appear to have not only claimed the South Rhenish provinces as compensation for his neutrality, but hinted at his desire to annex Belgium. In the compact made between Bismarck and Bonaparte in 1867 the cession of Belgium to France was specifically mentioned. The publication of these damning evidences of Bonapartist aims and intrigues secured for Bismarck a free hand and the isolation and the distrust of the enemy.

In this maze of international bargains and alliances, it is really Italy that appears in the best light. She refused to abandon Prussia for Austrian bribes in 1866, and again refused to abandon France for Prussian bribes in 1870.

It is evident that Napoleon badly mismanaged his opportunities in Southern Germany. On the very eve of war Bismarck betrayed the uncertain condition of the South by explaining "With the South or without the South, we are a match for them." Indeed the Bavarians had gone so far as to vote by a majority in the Committee of the Chamber that a strict neutrality should be maintained. The South reluctantly went over to the North. To sit on the fence was impossible, and Prussia was more compelling than France.

The culminating point of Bismarck's policy was seen at Versailles in January 1871. The German Empire was proclaimed. Even the King of Prussia did not grasp the significance of the day, and, but for his Chancellor, would have clung to the old title. The external appearance of Empire was essential for the safety of the south. Internally

in the constitution Bismarck was as anxious as his Royal master to place the controlling power in the hands of Prussia. Of this achievement Holland Rose says "However censurable much of his conduct may be, his action in working up to, and finally consummating, German unity at the right psychological moment stands out as one of the greatest feats of statesmanship which history records," and "thus the work begun in 1866 was completed. The blood shed by north and south side by side on many a victorious field had made of Germany a united nation." It is hard to find another example of a deliberate, calculated, policy, adopted in pursuit of a definite aim, each step marked out in advance, each eventuality prepared for, and such a policy attaining its end. Yet it was not cold calculation, but red hot enthusiasm. The man of blood and iron, can at least be credited with superb patriotism.

But Bismarck did not fight singlehanded. His enemies fought on his side. Owing to the quixotic schemes of Napoleon III and the criminal folly of his advisers, France dug her own grave. The part of the supporter of the lost causes, or the benefactor of the depressed nationalities, may have suited a Castlereagh, a Canning, or a Palmerston, but it ill became Napoleon III when his country was on the eve of both internal and external disruption. No doubt the heir to the heritage of the Revolution and Bonapartism felt it his duty to do something to revive the tradition of French Championship.*

But his schemes were both ill-timed, immature and half-hearted. Unfortunately too they were not always devoid of self-interest † Alas for the glories of Bonapartism.

"It was reserved for the Two Napoleons, uncle and nephew, to force those divided peoples to comradeship in arms." ‡ Napoleon III strengthened Bismarck's hand by creating an atmosphere of distrust amongst the nations which might have been his allies. Thus he initiated a united Germany on his frontier, and raised the bogey of Prussian domination which haunts France to-day.

If you must fight, it is well to fight with the right on your side. Unfortunately Napoleon was not even able to do that. Partly owing to Bismarck's astute cunning, and partly to the vag-

* "He knew well that the instincts of France were military and domineering, so that he has resolved to gratify them." Q. V. L. (to Lord Cowley.)

† Belgium.

‡ Fisher.

aries of Napoleon, the French undoubtedly figured in the eyes of Europe as the aggressors in 1870.

How far Napoleon's schemes were distrusted in Europe can be seen from the following letter written by Palmerston to Queen Victoria in August 1861.

".....But they (Sweden) consider the French Nation essentially aggressive, and they think that the Emperor is obliged to humour neutral feeling and to follow, as far the difference in circumstance will allow, the policy of his uncle. They consider the principle of nationalities to be the deciding principle of the day, and accordingly Venetia ought to belong to Italy, Poland ought to be secured for Russia, and Finland ought to be restored to Sweden. Holstein should be purely German with its own Duke, Schleswig should be united to Denmark and when the proper time comes with Sweden and Norway."

Also from the Queen's reply :

".....His (the King of Sweden's) desire to acquire Denmark and Finland is not unnatural, and would not be very dangerous, but the important part of the matter is that the Emperor Napoleon has evidently tried to bribe him for his schemes by such expectations. After having established a large Kingdom (Italy) dependent upon him, and possessing a fleet in the south of Europe on the right flank, he evidently tries to establish by the same means a similar power on his left flank in the north. If then the Revolutions of Poland and Hungary take Germany in the rear, he will be eventually in the all powerful position which his uncle held, and at which he himself aims, with that one difference that unlike his uncle, who had to fight England all the time (who defended desperately her interests in Europe) he tries to effect his purpose in alliance with England, and thus for this end uses our own free press, and in our own free country."*

Can any defence be made for the French War Party? The difficulty of the French and German relations was, and is still to-day—that no natural boundary limits their sphere of influence where they meet. Each wanted and wants a sure protection against a sudden attack from her neighbour. This Bismarck secured to some extent in 1870 in the fortresses of Metz and Strassburg, and the Alsatian territory. Had Napoleon been as astute a diplomatist as Bismarck, he would no doubt have succeeded in separating the lower provinces from Germany†—made the Rhine a bulwark between France and Germany, and solved the problem for several generations.

* Queen Victoria's letters have proved of inestimable value to the student of diplomacy. Could anything be more expressive than the above? Compare also a letter from the King of the Belgians dated February 1859 and a letter to Lord John Russell dated July 1859. Q. V. L. Page 452 Vol. III.

† In 1868 the Grand Duke of Hesse offered his territory on the left bank to the Emperor.

The defence for France is then, that her Emperor and his advisers promoted war out of fear for the future. She realised though not with the same thoroughness as Bismarck that there must be war. If war must come the sooner the better. The longer postponed the stronger Prussia, and the more united Germany would become.

"The power that was already formidable would soon be overwhelming, and France would be at its mercy. So far as politics can be reduced to figures the thing was clear" said Acton. This is justified in the light of subsequent history. In the eyes of Europe in 1870 Napoleon was sure to be triumphant.

Prince Von Bulow is evidently prejudiced when he writes:—

"Nothing could show more clearly the marvellous way in which the mature wisdom of our old Emperor co-operated with the genius of Prince Bismarck than the fact that they effected the unification of Germany not only in the face of all the difficulties with which they were confronted at home, but also in spite of opposition avowed or secret, and of the displeasure of the whole of Europe." "The displeasure" was with France and not with Germany."*

It was unfortunate for France, that when Napoleon saw the danger ahead of him, he did not take the proper steps to strengthen his position, by alliances and the securing of the good feeling of Europe. He did indeed seek alliances (Both sides did—"Both parties laboured to bring about a war—the one after the conclusion of the alliances—the other before") but no alliance could rest secure which was at the mercy of the whims of Napoleon and the passionate prejudices of the Empress. If one were asked to state laconically the causes of the Franco-Prussian War, one might say "the Pope, the Poles and the Press."

* "He will now probably omit no occasion to cajole Austria as he has done to Russia, and turn her spirit of revenge upon Prussia and Germany—the Emperor's probable next victims.... Should he thus have rendered himself the master of the entire continent, the time may come for us either to obey or to fight him with terrible odds against us."

Letter of Queen Victoria to Lord John Russell, July 1857.

"With such an extraordinary man as Louis Napoleon, we can never be for one instant safe."

Queen Victoria to the King of the Belgians, February, 1852.

"Lowe did not care what happened to Germany; Lord Granville asked himself what would be the position of England with the French at Berlin. Cardwell at the war office estimated that they would get there in about six weeks. All agreed that Germany had no chance, and that it would be doing them a service to get them out of the scrape." Lord Acton on the English Cabinet's attitude.

Napoleon, like James II, committed suicide over Rome. The good will of Italy was forfeited at the most critical moment by Napoleon's obstinate refusal to abandon his support of the "Roman territory." This Catholic prejudice was more the pursuasion of the Empress Eugenie than of her Consort. Her partial responsibility for the drama of 1870 cannot be doubted *C'est ma guerre a moi* she is reported to have said to M. Parien.

"The Empress was at least under no delusion. She saw that the dynasty depended on prestige, and that its prestige required to be refreshed: and whether or no it be true that Bismarck determined to force on a war with France in the summer of 1870, she and her party were eager for the fray. They believed that a war would save the dynasty, and that a war alone could save it and perhaps some justification is afforded for this opinion by the fact that when the news of Sedan was telegraphed to Paris the Empire fell suddenly, without noise, without a hand to help it, or a voice raised in its defence."

Unhappily it must be said that Napoleon's own character was the chief factor in the downfall of his Empire.† "He was a man of half resolve, of small extravagancies and petty intrigues."‡

The people themselves were in a secondary way responsible, as they had been with Bonaparte, and in that they required "two things, glory abroad, and the satisfaction of their national vanity."

If Rome ruined the Italian alliance, Poland annulled the Austrian alliance. Friendship or at least a good understanding with Russia was perhaps the most important and most constant of all Bismarck's diplomatic arrangements. He earned Russia's gratitude during the Polish risings, and again at the time of the Crimean War. In 1870 Russia did not forget the part that Napoleon III had played in these two occurrences. The Tsar made it clear to the Austrian Government, that, though he was outwardly neutral, he was prepared to invade Hungary if Austria joined France. Thus was Prussian diplomacy rewarded in 1870. Undoubtedly Napoleon sacrificed his empire on the altar of Polish nationality.§

As for the press "the story of the Franco-German dispute is one of National jealousy fanned for four years by newspaper editors and popular speakers until a spark sufficed to set Western

Europe ablaze."* The publication of the *Kms* telegram gave the final opportunity for the press of both countries to indulge in an orgy of patriotism and vituperation. The people and Press in France and Germany had decided, before their Governments had done so, that there were just grounds for war. You cannot talk of war for ever without evoking the actuality.

The German aims are no less clear to-day. World power, colonial empire, and European domination. "If necessary they must be obtained as the result of a successful European war."†

The present Kaiser and his Chancellor have faithfully, as they thought, adhered to Prussian traditions: *Les mœurs Politiques* demanded a war with England. The pilot had been dropped, but the course not altered. Empire welded by blood and iron. Germany was once more to cement her heterogeneous nationality by the policy of Bismarck. Unfortunately for her, the subtle hand of the pilot removed, "full steamed ahead" has plunged her into that very sea of troubles which Bismarck so skillfully avoided.

We have for the purposes of the present discussion, no quarrel with Germany's intentions to make war. If her Bernhardis and her Treitschkes think that a deliberately planned war is still a legitimate weapon in National and Imperial development, their theories are probably based on solid necessity.

Treitschke may have been inspired by hate, but Bernhardi is too candid a reviewer to earn our reproaches. Morally we may detest German diplomacy, historically we can but despise it because it has not even the merit of success. Most thinking persons are willing to admit that Germany is entitled to a future, that being last in the field, is not a sufficient justification for the stultifying and cramping of a powerful nation; but few will agree that her methods of August 1914, represented the only way out of the difficulty. It is conceivable that she might have attained her object by peaceful methods, but if, indeed, war were the only solution then she has missed her opportunity for a century—"World power or downfall." "A nation" says Bernhardi "of 65,000,000 which stakes all her forces on winning herself a position, and in keeping that position, cannot be conquered. But it is an evil day for her if she relies on the semblance of power, or, miscalculating her enemies' strength, is content with half measures....."

*H. L. Fisher.

†"He is a very extraordinary man, I might almost say mysterious." L. Q. V.

‡Albert Thomas.

§"It is a peculiarity of the French Nation that they place spiritual needs above material ones." Von Bulow.

† J. Holland Rose

‡ Bernhardi.

We are too close to the events of war to trust our judgment. But one thing would appear clear that the Kaiser misunderstood the part that England was going to play in the war. Was it likely, he must have argued, that England would either be in a position to or desire to enter the war. She had everything to lose and little to gain. Her hands were full in Ireland, in Africa and in India; her army was small and unreliable, her people apathetic or revolutionary, her Colonies and Empire loose knit; her Government peace-loving and servile. What could such a maze of Redmondites and Ulsterites, socialists and suffragettes little navy parties and constitutional crises mean, if it were not decadence? The England of Palmerston and Canning had passed away, of Byron and Nelson, of Wellington and Wolsey. Her Navy had left the Mediterranean, the virility of her foreign policy had waned. Her daughters clamoured for independence, her labour for recognition. No, certainly England would not fight, and if she did—only her navy would matter. If for the Kaiser, results were to be measured by effort, then he had good reason to look for support from inside the British Empire. German diplomacy intended to insure Civil Strife in Ireland, disaffection in Egypt; revolution in Africa, hostility in India and disloyalty in the Mahommedan world.

This done England would be effectually crippled. Her navy scattered and her limbs dissected, colonial unrest would prove an effectual bar to the massing of imperial troops and the transport of supplies.* Humanly speaking it is hardly possible to believe that Germany would have started the war unless she trusted in some of the above conceptions.

As for the neutrality of Belgium, she had no reason to suppose, except on the ground of weakness, that England would abandon the position she took up in 1870. German writers and diplomatists have been pleased to jeer at England's self-interested morality, but whatever the German menace may have meant to England, however much she may have foreseen the perils of isolation, it was the question of Belgium that decided the fate of Europe, and the abandonment of in-

ternational morality which has sealed the fate of Germany.

As for Russia "Germany has alternately feared, befriended and despised the "barbarian" on her eastern frontier." In July, 1914, Russia appeared to her neighbour as paralysed by internal labour troubles, her resources still weakened by the Japanese War, and her autocracy shaking in its foundations.*

In the event of a war with England Germany's military experts would certainly seem to have underestimated the strength and qualifications of the English army. † Sheer ignorance and folly do not satisfactorily account for Germany's actions. One is therefore forced to the rather uncertain conclusion that German diplomats relied on, or at least hoped for two essentials.—The neutrality of England and the active assistance of Italy. The following suppositions in German diplomacy may help to make this conclusion clear. Germany was fully aware that in spite of having spent 300 million on her navy, she could not hope to progress against the combined navies of England, France and Russia. If England were neutral and Italy an active ally she had every reason to believe that both the Baltic and the Mediterranean could easily be dominated. It would appear that the neutrality of Spain even was to be violated in order to secure a good naval base in the Mediterranean. ‡ The success of German designs on the

* "The Russian ambassador is convinced that the German Government also desired war from the first." Sir M. De Bunsen to Sir Edward Grey.

"The evidence is overwhelming that both in Austria and Germany the firm belief prevailed up to the last that Russia would never go to war." *The Fortnightly*.

Russia it was said was unprepared and France was in no condition to go to war. Introduction to the "White paper."

"Russia had said that she desired nothing but a period of peace to allow for her internal development." *Ibid*.

† For a war in continental Europe, we have only to take into account the regular army stationed in England..... The army of the parts of the empire administered by the English Cabinet, divides into the Regular army, the Native troops, and the Territorial army, a militia made up of Volunteers which has not reached the intended total of 300,000. Its military value cannot at present be ranked very high. For a continental European war it may be left out of account..... England can employ her regular army in a continental war so long only as all is quiet in the colonies. This fact brings into prominence how important it will be should war break out to threaten England in her Colonial dominions, especially Egypt." Bernhardt.

‡ Vide Nauticus in the December *Fortnightly*. "Majorca was to be treated after the fashion, not perhaps of Belgium, but of Luxemburg."

* "There is another danger which concerns England more closely and directly threatens her vitality. This is due to the national movement in India and Egypt, to the growing power of Islam, to the agitation for independence in the great colonies, as well as the supremacy of the pro-German element in South Africa." Bernhardt—"Germany and the next war."

Mediterranean depended absolutely either on the neutrality of Britain or the co-operation of the Italian Navy, or on both. These assumptions do not exclude Germany's further schemes in Egypt and Turkey. In the event of English hostility Germany could still rely upon the assistance of Roumania, Italy, Turkey and possibly Bulgaria. While Egypt, Africa, Ireland and India were to be sufficiently fomented to threaten England's Empire and tie her hands. Undoubtedly a section of Germany believed that England would not sacrifice her material interests for the sake of a scrap of paper, and that the nation of shopkeepers had proved itself incapable of maintaining an empire.*

Cramb expressed the German view as follows. "England's supremacy is an unreality, her political power is as hollow as her moral virtues. She cannot long retain that baseless supremacy. Her decline is certain, there may be no war."

With all her minute preparations Germany underestimated the part that the small nationalities were to play in this war. Belgium and Serbia alone have been sufficient to upset the Kaiser's plans. Germany's misconceptions were amazing. "The truth is" says Dr. Dillion "the Berlin authorities were too well supplied with details whilst lacking a safe criterion by which to measure their worth." We are far from wishing to belittle Germany's strength, but it cannot be doubted that a number of the Kaiser's advisers were ignorant, wilfully or otherwise, of the true state of affairs in England and her Colonies, and the attitude of the English Government helped to keep them in ignorance. We can hardly help congratulating ourselves that there is no longer a Bismarck at the head of affairs in Germany. No doubt, had there been, the policy of isolation and destruction would have been ruthlessly pursued. In 1870 Germany's natural enemies remained neutral; in 1914 even her allies do not support her. Her cause is then neither just nor her diplomacy good. Bismarck was terrified at the action of his new master because he foresaw that a time would come when it would no longer be possible for Germany to separate either Russia and France or France and England. A mediæval Kaiser frightening Europe is not the best fountainhead for the

subtleties of diplomacy. To quote Bismarck once more "Some of the French who threatened us five years ago (1886) are already dead, and in all probability hardly any of them will be alive at the time when France may see her chance of attacking us. But I will go still further and maintain that if Germany retains only semi-capable statesmen France will never have such an opportunity." Assuredly Bismarck did not contemplate France being able to attack Germany with Russia, England, Japan, Belgium and Serbia as her allies.

As for Turkey he said "I rejoice to see that we are not disposed to give up this reserve, and are resisting the temptation to force our way into the ranks of those powers who are immediately interested in the Turkish question."

In one way at least the Emperor and Dr. Von Bethmann Hollweg have forsaken the tradition of Bismarck, and in doing so have seriously jeopardised their cause. "Success" Bismarck said "essentially depends upon the impression which the origination of the war makes upon us and others. It is important that we should be the party attacked." It is interesting to compare this with Frederick the Great's remark, which Bernhardi makes use of, "He is a fool, and that nation is a fool, who having the power to strike his enemy unawares does not strike, and strike his deadliest."*

Von Bulow forgets that Bismarck was not as really a disciple in the same school as Treitschke and Bernhardi. "Even victorious wars" he said "can only be justified when they are forced upon a nation." But how, it may be asked does 1870 stand the test of this maxim? The question is answered by professor Cramb.

"The war of 1870 with France was a war of great revenge, of just revenge, and for one of the greatest causes. No war in history perhaps was ever more just than the war which Bismarck and Moltke waged against France." Germany's failure is then attributed as much to the abandonment of Bismarckian ideals as to her purblind diplomacy.

"There is no better nation than the Germans, so long as they are rightly guided." Therein lies the secret of Bismarck's success and the Kaiser's failure. Germans of to day hail Bismarck as the founder of Modern Germany—but not in the sense that the prince himself would have approved of. Von Bulow overlooks Bismarck's own

* That England would pay much attention to the neutrality of weaker neighbours when such a stake was at issue is hardly credible.—Bernhardi

"Does any one believe that England would have interfered to protect Belgian freedom against France?"—

The German Chancellor.

* Letter to Voltaire.

utterances and ingeniously attributes Germany's present policy to him in the following manner.

"We must never forget that without the gigantic achievement of Prince Bismarck this new era would never have dawned. Even if in the course of our new international policy we depart from the European policy of the first Chancellor, yet it still remains true that the international tasks of the twentieth century are, properly speaking, the continuation of the work he completed in the field of the continental policy."

Thus "though it is certain that Bismarck did not foresee the course of this new development of Germany," he had brought Prussia to such a pitch of prosperity and power, that European and world-domination lay on the horizon of her future. Though Von Bulow is an able critic of French History he would appear, in common with most of Official Germany, to have adopted too confident a view of the methods of modern German diplomacy. "European history" he says "has seldom, if ever, seen an alliance of such strength and durability as the triple alliance" even Bismarck with all his belief in the incompatibility of Tsar and Republic would not have subscribed to such an opinion. He knew too well the delicacy of Austro-Italian relations.*

His views on the new colonial policy may be gathered from the following. "I am not anxious to know how people who have shaken the dust of the Fatherland off their feet are getting on," again "As minister I lacked every inclination for a policy of colonial conquest on the French pattern."

* Referring to the Turkish crisis he said "What attitude Austria and Italy would maintain towards one another? I cannot calculate that beforehand, it depends on future eventualities."

He was no happier over Germany's new European policy. "Other faults" he said "have been committed which cause me anxiety, and they seem to have something in view which would mean a break away from my long and laboriously maintained policy."

At another time he said "My criticism is solely directed against the wrong political methods which my successor and his colleagues have adopted, for they fill me with anxiety for the Empire."

Again, "It is not a personal grudge, nor revenge, nor even a wish to regain power, but the anxiety, the heavy anxiety which robs me of many a night's rest, about the future [of the Empire founded with such costly and heavy sacrifice."

His remarks were pregnant with future significance.

It is not for one moment suggested that Caprivi, Hohenlohe-Schillings, First, Von Bulow and Bethman-Hollweg have had the same opportunities as Bismarck or even the same problems and situations to deal with. But it is hardly possible to believe in view of the combination against her, that Germany could not have played her cards better. There have not been wanting international complications such as Fashoda, Tunis, Morocco, Tripoli, Panjdeh. The dogger Bank, The Jameson Raid, Bosnia and Herzegovina which she could have turned to good account. German policy after Bismarck has differed from that of his day, in that it has made no secret of its intentions. Such bold assertions of policy and aims, as have characterised Germany of late, cannot be expected to produce successful alliances or fruitful diplomacy, but with all her marvellous energy, her huge military machine, her unbounded confidence not even Germany can win World power unaided.

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EGYPT AND HER FOREIGN RELATIONS

BY PROF. E. W. GREEN.

IN their descriptions and histories of Egypt many writers have referred to its isolation and remoteness. Gibbon called it an impervious country. They have seen it as a country cut off from easy communications with its neighbours by a vicious circle of desert—the Libyan on the west, the Nubian to the south, the Arabian on the east, while to the north, separating Egypt from Asia there lies the desert of Tih, over which the Israelites wandered, and along the coast, “betwixt Damietta and Mount Casius old,” the proverbial Serbonian bog, “where armies whole have sunk.” On the map then the position of Egypt suggests isolation.

Her history, however, shows the view to be mistaken. As far back as the Fourth Dynasty, which reigned about four thousand years before the Christian era, Egypt had embarked on a policy of expansion into Asia, and from that time there are very few periods in her history when she has not been in active contact with countries beyond her border or under the influence of their authority. There are long periods in which Egypt was established in the neighbouring countries of Syria, Arabia and Nubia; there are longer periods when she submitted to the control of foreign powers—Hebrews, Assyrians and Persians; Greeks and Romans; Arabs and Turks; and finally the English. The intervals of political isolation are comparatively rare and were generally periods of decline from which she was drawn by foreign influence.

Foreign influence has almost always penetrated Egypt from Asia, and Egyptian expansion has invariably been directed towards Asia. Her history, indeed, is Asiatic rather than African. Her northern frontier was established by King Sesostris about 4000 B.C., along a line running from the head of the Gulf of Akaba to a point on the coast of Syria. That is to say, Egypt at an early date absorbed the peninsula of Sinai. Very much the same line from Akaba to El Arish now constitutes the frontier between Egypt and Turkey. To the north of the frontier lies Syria and it is through Syria that almost every invader of Egypt has come. Not only did the Asiatic conquerors enter by this route, but the Greeks and Romans as well. Alexander marched on Egypt after he had won the battle of the Issus in

northern Syria, and when the Roman Senate resolved on the Roman occupation, the Governor of Syria was entrusted with the task.

The history of Egyptian expansion, too, emphasises the above political connection of Egypt and Syria. In the age of the Pharaohs, Syria and the country as far as the Euphrates were held by Egypt for centuries. In the period of the kings of Israel and Judah, Syria was the prize for which Egypt and Assyria struggled. History repeated itself in the time of the Ptolemies after Alexander's empire had been divided by his generals, and the Asiatic and the Egyptian divisions competed for the possession of Syria. In later ages there is the struggle between Saladin and the Crusaders. Napoleon again after he had occupied Egypt proceeded to the annexation of Syria, and when Mehemet Ali established himself in Egypt at the beginning of the nineteenth century he attempted to penetrate through Syria to Asia Minor. Thus the history of Egypt is inextricably bound up with the history of South-western Asia.

Two other countries should be noted in connection with a review of Egypt's foreign relations—Arabia and Nubia. Both of these countries were objects of Egyptian ambitions from the age of the Pyramids to the reign of Mehemet Ali; and the same objects are still reflected in the policy of the present Government of Egypt. Punt, the ancient name for Arabia, and Nubia formed part of the Egyptian Empire in the so-called Old and New Kingdoms of the ancient dynasties. All the powerful rulers of Egypt sought to add them to their empires, while the British conquest of the Sudan and England's relations with the Arabs from Koweir to Yemen illustrate the continuity of political conditions. From these countries, too, Egypt has been frequently attacked and on occasions conquered. She was ruled by Ethiopian Kings from 750 to 650 B.C., and was conquered by the Arabs in 640 A.D.

A survey of Egyptian history thus seems to show a contradiction between the country's geography and its history. It is shut off by deserts, yet it has always been in close communication with other people; it is African, but its history is rarely concerned with Africa. It is near and remote; Asiatic and African. But the contradiction



A. H. McMAHON
HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR EGYPT.



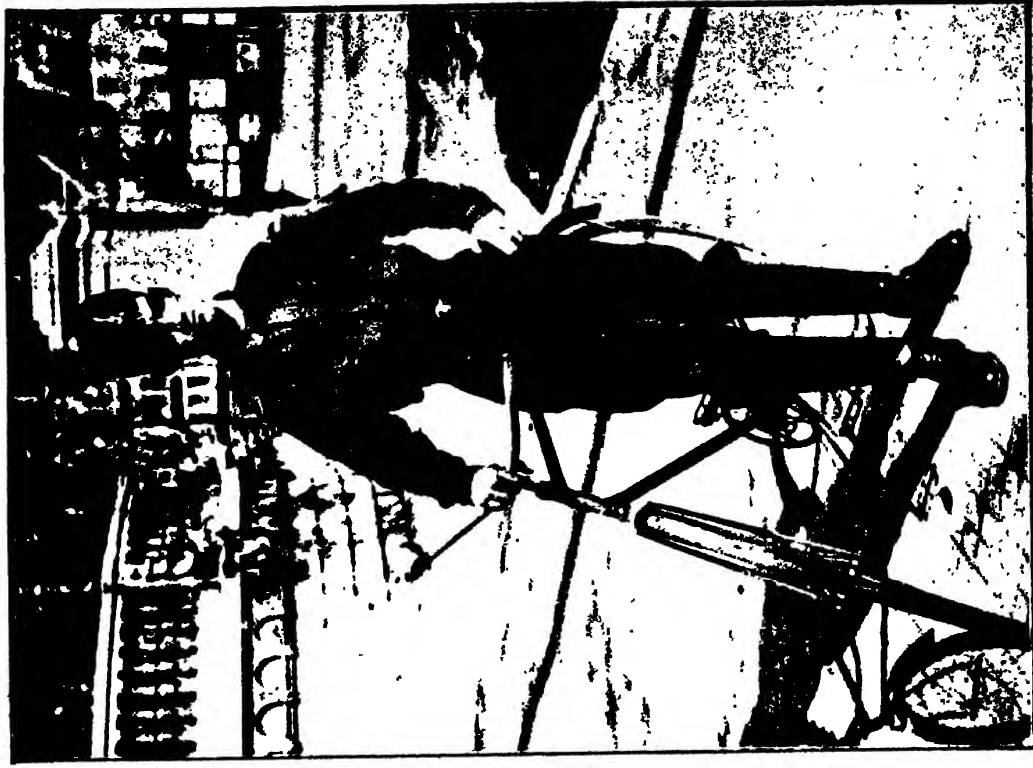
HUSSEIN KAMIL PASHA
THE NEW SULTAN OF EGYPT.



THE EX-KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.—
ADHERED TO THE KING'S ENEMIES.



MAJOR GENERAL BADEN-POWELL



JOSEPH LEYSSEN, THE BELGIAN BOY SUT.

is only apparent; in fact, the history of Egypt is determined by her geography as closely as is the history of any other country by its situation. Egyptian history is in complete harmony with her geography.

The situation of Egypt in the south-east corner of the Mediterranean places her on the line of country which connects Europe and Asia. The line may be taken as extending from Constantinople to Cairo—from the Black Sea to the Red Sea. The countries on the line are Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Syria and Egypt—Arabia also may be included in the system. From the dawn of history the avenues of communication between East and West have lain in these countries. Before the sea-route to the East was opened, the products of the East were brought by caravans through Persia to the Euphrates and thence to the ports of the Black Sea and the Eastern Mediterranean. From the earliest age of history the gems, spices and manufactures of the East have been exchanged at these ports for the metals of the West. The countries through which these trade-routes passed early amassed wealth, and competing kingdoms appeared which sought to draw to themselves the bulk of the transit trade. It is obvious that if one country was able to develop sufficient power to bring all these trade routes under its control, it would destroy competition and establish a monopoly which would give its inhabitants command of the wealth of the East. And so we find in the ancient and modern world successive attempts to consolidate this area into a single political system. Thus, in the ancient world, grew up the mighty empires of Ur, Babylon, Nineveh and Tyre; of Persia, Greece and Rome. It was the object alike of Nebuchadnezzar, Cyrus, Alexander and Augustus to command the countries which lay between the Euphrates and the Mediterranean. This is the system which Venice sought to control in Mediæval Europe and which the Turks eventually mastered and held for centuries. In this economic system, modified by the cutting of the Suez Canal, is to be found one of the fundamental causes of rivalry in Europe at the present moment.

Egypt's relation to the economic system of the Eastern Mediterranean can be traced through three stages. In the earliest age of her history she was herself the terminus of the eastern trade-routes. She produced the metals that the East wanted. By the conquest of the peninsula of Sinai about 4000 B.C., she obtained possession of the rich copper mines of Maghara and became the largest purchaser of eastern produce. The

period of the opening of the copper mines was age when the Pyramids were built, of which has been said that their simplicity, vastness, perfection and beauty place them on a different level from all works of art and man's devices in later ages. Again the conquest of Nubia, five hundred years later, gave Egypt the control of rich gold mines, which in the last dynasties gave the Pharaohs an enormous annual yield of bullion.

The second stage in the development of Egypt's economic relations set in when the Asiatic trade-routes stretched out beyond the mainland to Cyprus, Greece and the Western Mediterranean. Competition then set in between the Euphrates and the Nile routes. The position was as follows: Eastern goods either made their way by caravan transport across Persia and Asia-Minor to the Black Sea and the Ægean, or they were collected at the head of the Persian Gulf and then taken either up the Euphrates to the middle of its course and so to the Syrian ports, or by the Arabian route to the Red Sea, where they were transported to the Nile and floated down to the Mediterranean. To stimulate the Arabian trade canals were dug from the Red Sea to the Nile and about 610 B.C., one was begun to connect the Nile with the Arabian Gulf through the Bitter Lakes. With these conditions keen economic rivalry, leading to war, set in between Egypt and the Power established on the Euphrates. This period may be taken as extending from the thirteenth dynasty, about 1900 B.C., to the beginning of the Christian era. In this period various powers built up empires which embraced the whole system. Such was the dominion of the Persians, of Alexander the Great and of the Romans, all of whom necessarily included Egypt in their imperial schemes. At other times the Kingdoms of the Nile and the Euphrates struggled for the possession of Syria which was the bridge connecting the two rivers. Its possession would enable Egypt to reach the Euphrates, or the Mesopotamian power to advance to the Nile. The best examples of the rivalry are to be found in the wars between Egypt and Assyria in the reigns of the kings of Israel and Judah, and those between the Seleucids and the Ptolemies after the break-up of Alexander's Empire.

A third stage in Egypt's economic relations set in with the opening up of the direct route to India by sea, in the period of the Roman occupation. As the result of Augustus' victory over Antony and Cleopatra at Actium all the Eastern Provinces of the Roman Empire, stretching to the Euphrates and including the Nile, passed

again under the control of a single ruler. In the Roman imperial system which Augustus created, Egypt was distinguished from the other provinces by being made the private property of the Roman Emperors. From the days of Augustus, therefore, Egypt received marked attention. All its resources were developed, and special arrangements were made for making Egypt the great emporium of Eastern and Western trade. As much of the Eastern trade as possible was diverted to the Nile. The trade which had followed the land-routes across Arabia to Petra and Gaza and the Syrian ports was turned away to Egypt, partly as the result of the increased cheapness and security of the water-route, partly by the protective measures of Augustus. The policy of Augustus can be traced very clearly by studying his dealings with the Arabs, who in the declining period of the Ptolemies had obtained control of the sea-route to the Nile in addition to their land-routes to Petra and Gaza and the Syrian coast. He sent a military expedition to the West coast of Arabia to get control of the Petra trade-route, but it failed. Later a naval expedition was prepared which destroyed Adane, the modern Aden, which was the great Arabian entreport for trade between India, Persia, Africa and Egypt. Its destruction destroyed Arabian competition and gave Egypt and Rome the direct interest in the Eastern trade. Further, communications were improved; at sea by the suppression of piracy; inland, by improving the roads which led from the Egyptian ports on the Red Sea to the Nile. A protective system was also imposed in favour of Egypt. There is good reason to believe that by Navigation Acts, Eastern trade was confined to Roman and Egyptian ships, and that differential duties were imposed to divert traffic from the land-routes to the sea and the Nile. In the time of Augustus trade largely deserted the route to Petra and the Syrian ports in favour of the Red Sea and the Nile—and Egypt profited.

This stage in Egyptian development was completed in the time of Nero when the Egyptian sailor, Hippalus, sailed direct to the Indian ports instead of coasting round the Arabian Peninsula. Shortly afterwards a ship from Egypt sailed to the Malabar coast and rounded Cape Comorin. The extent to which Egypt gained by these measures, even in the reign of Augustus, can be gathered from the fact that in one year 120 ships sailed from the port of Myos Hormos to India, while in the period of the Ptolemies only twenty ships a year ventured into the Arabian Gulf.

This period of successful competition with the Euphrates system continued to the declining years of the Roman Empire and its descendant, the Byzantine Empire. The history of the latter empire illustrates again the reaction of the Euphrates upon the Nile. The Euphrates frontier was attacked by the Persians and the consequent confusion and insecurity drove trade from the caravan-routes to the safer maritime-routes, by which Egypt again profited. Again when for a time the Persians under Chosroes broke through the Roman defence on the Euphrates and pushed through to Syria in 612, Egypt also fell, but was regained with the great victory of the Emperor Heraclius at Nineveh. A few years later, however, the Saracens established themselves in Mesopotamia and Egypt became part of the Mahomedan Empire which consolidated again the Euphrates and the Nile systems, with its centre at Bagdad.

The history of Egypt's foreign relations after the Saracen conquest can be grouped round three important events, each of which is concerned with her situation on the sea-route connecting the East and the West. The events are the introduction of the magnet for navigation; the voyage of Vasco de Gama opening up direct sea-communication between Europe and the East; the construction of the Suez Canal.

It is supposed that the mariner's compass was known to the Chinese in the third century A.D., but it was not used by the Arabs till the Caliphate of the famous Haroun-al-Raschid, at the end of the eighth century. By the tenth century the Caliphate of Bagdad had sunk into decay. At the same time Egypt rose to the height of her splendour. Cairo was founded in 969, and the elegance and grandeur of her gates and mosques, and the establishment of the famous University of Gama-el-Azhan made her the foremost city of the age. The fabulous prosperity of Egypt at this time has been traced to the possession of the monopoly of the trade with the East. The introduction of the mariner's compass had made the sea-route quicker and safer and therefore cheaper. Consequently trade deserted the high-ways of Asia and the Empire of Bagdad sank into decline. Egypt's relations in this period extended eastwards to China, India, and the Spice Islands and westwards to Central Europe. Her commercial relations in the West connected her with the merchants of Italy and Germany, trade passing from the Nile to Venice on the Adriatic, though Genova and Marseilles had a less considerable share. For a time Egypt stood at the cross-roads

of the world; all traffic between East and West passed through her ports.

Apart from the imperial position of Egypt from the tenth to the sixteenth century, three points of interest arise. In the first place the Egyptian empire was formed by separation from the Caliphate of Bagdad. A separate Caliphate of the Fatimites (the descendants of Mahomed through his daughter, Fatima) was established at Cairo. Secondly, the empire, as if obedient to some law of expansion, included again Syria, Nubia and Arabia. In the time of Saladin Egyptian arms were carried again to the Euphrates. In the third place the relations between Egypt and Europe are interesting. The countries of Europe hurled themselves on the countries of the Eastern Mediterranean in the Crusades. Whether we look at the Crusades in their religious or in their economic aspect, the movement came from Italy. The crusaders were summoned by the Vatican and served the interests of Venice. Constantinople was sacked by the Crusaders under the leadership of the Doge, Dandolo, blind and ninety-three, and Egypt was unsuccessfully invaded, but Venice built up a commercial empire in the East of the Mediterranean and drew the wealth of the East to the Adriatic. This trade was the basis of the prosperity and vigour of the Italian and German cities in the middle ages.

This situation continued till the beginning of the sixteenth century. Then the fortunes of Egypt underwent another change. In the fourteenth century another power had established itself on the Euphrates—the Ottoman Turks. They founded an empire which extended from the Persian Gulf to the Adriatic Sea, and in 1453 Constantinople was stormed and became the capital of the Turkish Empire. In 1517 Egypt was conquered and the Egyptian Caliphate was transferred to the Sultan at Constantinople, though he was not a member of the Khoreish, the tribe of Mahomed. But economic decline in Egypt had preceded political decay. In 1499 Vasco da Gama returned from Calicut. In 1509 the Portuguese defeated the Egyptian fleet in the Arabian Sea, occupied Socotra and closed the Red Sea to Eastern trade. The result was that trade deserted the old routes, and Egypt, Italy and Germany were ruined. They remained dormant until the construction of the Suez Canal restored the old conditions.

But though Egypt remained lethargic under Turkish rule, the importance of her position was never entirely obscured. It was always felt that it afforded a post at which the Eastern trade

might still be commanded. As Augustus had brought Rome into direct communication with the East by the destruction of the Arabian marine and the occupation of Aden, some modern Romans might re-open the gate by the acquisition of Egypt and the Red Sea and by the destruction from that base of political and commercial rivals. Thus in the 17th century, when the Dutch had succeeded the Portuguese as the chief commercial power in the East, the philosopher Liebnitz suggested to Louis XIV that he should destroy his Dutch rivals by the occupation of Egypt but Louis neglected the advice. Again, when the English displaced the Dutch, Napoleon hoped to destroy England in Egypt. His plan was to establish himself on the Euphrates-Nile system—a plan which would entail the destruction of the Turkish Empire—and then use his position on the Red Sea and Persian Gulf to attack the English in the East. After the occupation of Egypt he moved on Syria, but was checked at Acre by English sea-power. After the Napoleonic Wars Eastern trade expanded and Egypt was again stirred into activity. In 1832 the Governor of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, revolted from Turkey and in the customary manner overran Syria, established himself on the Euphrates and annexed Arabia in very much the same way as the Fatimite Caliphs had set up an independent Egypt by a successful revolt from the Abbasid Caliphate of Bagdad. In this venture, Egypt had the support of France, but England and Russia intervened to prevent the establishment of a new empire in Asia-Minor, and Mehemet Ali was ultimately forced to yield his conquests and content himself with the gift of the hereditary possession of Egypt under the suzerainty of the Sultan.

It is clear then that before the cutting of the Suez Canal the Eastern Mediterranean was being stirred into activity. It was again becoming an important centre of political energy. Schemes were again on foot to re-open the roads which had been closed for three centuries. The line of the present Canal had been surveyed by the British Government in 1830, but construction was vetoed for political and financial reasons. Overland transport, however, was established and later a railway between Alexandria and Suez to provide rapid communication for Eastern mails and passengers, and a certain amount of trade was diverted. In 1854 the project of cutting through the isthmus was proposed again by the French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps, a concession was obtained from the Egyptian Government and in 1869 the work was completed. About the

same time, the Australian and New Zealand gold discoveries emphasised the demand for shorter communications with the East, while the change from sailing ships to steamers as the result of the application of the compound engine to steam ships made the Suez Canal the main line of communication between Europe and the East. Egypt was again the cynosure of every political eye.

With the construction of the Canal the situation in the Eastern Mediterranean developed rapidly. Between 1854 and 1870, the period between the grant of the concession and the completion of the Canal, Europe witnessed the Crimean War, the Italian struggle against Austria, the Austro-Prussian War and the Franco-German War. That is to say Italy and Germany consolidated their power. Just as they had declined with the closing of the Egyptian trade-route in the sixteenth century, they revived with its reopening in the nineteenth century. The stimulus was felt too in the Balkans and in Russia. All the countries of Central and South Eastern Europe gravitated to the Eastern Mediterranean. All sought to share in the rich commerce which was benefiting the maritime powers of England and France. The Triple Alliance was formed by Germany, Austria and Italy, one of whose objects was the control of the Nile-Euphrates system. Trieste, Salonica, Constantinople, and then Asia-Minor, Syria and Egypt were the goals of their political ambition. Thus we find at the present moment German influence established in Constantinople and Asia-Minor; and Italy on the Western frontier of Egypt. More recently was created the Balkan League and then occurred the attack on Salonica, Constantinople, and the Aegean Isles which command the coast of Asia-Minor. In fact politically and economically the Crusading period had returned. The series of wars which began in 1854 began with a dispute for the possession of the Holy Places. There was too a decadent Power at Constantinople, a reconstituted Egypt and the intestine rivalries of European powers for supremacy in the Eastern Mediterranean.

The situation was reflected in the European intervention in Egypt. Ismail was Ruler of Egypt, but he was no Saladin. His extravagance and misgovernment brought the country to the verge of bankruptcy. Between 1863 and 1876 the public debt had increased from £ 3,000,000 to £ 89,000,000 and almost all this vast sum had been misappropriated by Ismail and his officials instead of being spent upon

productive works. Consequently the interest had to be paid by additional taxation which increased by 50 per cent. The alternative lay between repudiation and the intervention of the creditors. A method of intervention was afforded by the capitulations, that is, treaty concessions obtained by Christian powers from the Turkish Empire, conferring immunity from taxation and freedom from the jurisdiction of the local Courts. Thus a complaint of a European creditor in respect of the failure of the Egyptian Government to meet its financial obligations would be decided in a court which derived its jurisdiction from the great powers, who had also the power to enforce their treaty rights. Hence the fourteen European powers made joint representations and the administration practically passed into their hands. Two institutions were established. The Mixed Tribunals which decided all civil cases between Europeans and Egyptians and an international Board, the *Caisse de la dette* to administer the revenues assigned for the payment of the debt. This was the situation in 1876. Since that period the march of events has again brought Egypt under the protection of the power whose interests are paramount in the East, at this time, England. But the European Concert and Turkish suzerainty have gone, and England is the only Power that is now concerned with the administration and defence of Egypt.

In 1878 the complete incompetency of Ismail's government led to his deposition by the European Powers and the establishment under his successor, Tewfik, of the dual administrative control of England and France. That position lasted till 1882. Then followed the British occupation. The Egyptian revolt under the Minister of War, Arabi, an anti-Turkish movement which developed into an anti-European rising, stirred up all the disorderly elements in the country, and when England failed to obtain the support of Europe or of Turkey, for joint intervention, she intervened alone and with the battle of Tel-el-Kebir the British occupation commenced. From 1882-1904 the administration was mainly Anglo-Egyptian, but France still exerted a powerful and obstructive influence in the Mixed Tribunals and *Caisse de la dette*. In 1904, however, an agreement was made by which France undertook to withdraw from Egypt in return for British support of her Moroccan policy. This arrangement remained good for ten years—to the end of 1914. Then in consequence of the Khedive's intrigues with the powers with whom England was at war, he was deposed. At the same time, as Turkey had thrown in her lot

with Germany, the Anglo-Egyptian Government renounced the suzerainty of Turkey and England established in its place a British Protectorate. With the separation from Turkey the Capitulations were abolished, and the Anglo-Egyptian Government has obtained a free hand to develop Egyptian resources and her administration without impediment from Turkey or Europe, while Egypt herself has again come under the direct control of the Power whose interests most necessitate the maintenance of secure communications with the East.

In this situation the interests of England and Egypt are identical. In particular both are bound to look with concern on any attempt to establish a new empire embracing again the Nile-Euphrates system. The power which is making the attempt at the present moment is Germany. Her policy is revealed in her relations with Turkey and her construction of the Bagdad and Hedjaz railways. The Bagdad railway is intended to establish German influence on the Euphrates and the Persian

Gulf. The Hedjaz railway runs through Syria from Beyrout to Damascus and then southwards through Jerusalem along the Eastern shore of the Dead Sea to Arabia. From the Dead Sea another line is under construction leading to El Arish on the Egyptian frontier with the Suez Canal and Egypt as its objective. It is thus quite clear that another attempt is being made to consolidate all the country which lies between the Euphrates and the Nile. In obedience to the law which seems to determine Egypt's relations, she is bound to oppose such a design or she must submit. The law is equally binding on the Power which has brought Egypt under her protection, and for this reason British expeditions have been despatched to the Euphrates and the Nile (or to the Suez Canal as the modern counterpart of the Nile). Egypt's foreign relations in fact have undergone no change in principle between the age of Oheops and the twentieth century. The principle is as enduring as the Pyramids.

THE NEW ERA IN EGYPT

EGYPT UNDER BRITISH PROTECTORATE.

The Press Bureau made the following announcement on December 17th 1914.

His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs gives notice that, in view of the state of war arising out of the action of Turkey, Egypt is placed under the protection of his Majesty and will henceforth constitute a British Protectorate.

The suzerainty of Turkey over Egypt is thus terminated and his Majesty's Government will adopt all measures necessary for the defence of Egypt and the protection of its inhabitants and interests.

The King has been pleased to approve the appointment of Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Arthur Henry McMahon, G.C.V.O., K.O.I.E., C.S.I., to be his Majesty's High Commissioner for Egypt.

THE NEW CABINET.

The new Cabinet (Dec. 21) is constituted as follows:—

Premier and Minister of the Interior—Rushdy Pasha.

Minister of Public Works, War and Marine—Sirry Pasha.

Minister of Instruction—Ahmed Hilmy Pasha.

Minister of Justice—Samat Pasha.

Minister of Wakf—Ishmail Sidhy Pasha.

SIR REGINALD WINGATE.

The command of the Egyptian army is vested in Lieut.-General Sir Reginald Wingate, with the title of Sirdar and Governor-General of the Sudan. He saw service with the several Sudan and Nile Expeditions and was for many years the right-hand man and Chief Intelligence Officer to Lord Kitchener. His thorough knowledge of Arabic and of desert custom proved invaluable to the Army in its advance. He fought the remnant of the Khaluja's followers, completed his rout and conducted the operations which resulted in the death of that daring scourge of the Sudan. He succeeded Lord Kitchener as Sirdar in 1899 and received the G.O.B., in June 1914.

He served in India in 1881-1883, joining the Egyptian army in the latter year. In the following year he acted as A. D. C. and Military Secretary to Sir Evelyn Wood during the Nile Expedition. In 1897 he was sent on a special mission to King Minelik of Abyssinia and was similarly at the head of the mission to Somaliland in 1909. He took part in the battles of Akaba (1898) and Khartoum and the Fashoda expedition and was thanked for his services by both Houses of Parliament, besides receiving the K.O.M.G. He is a soldier of experience and distinction and the author of more than one standard work on Matildism and the Sudan.

THE LAST OF THE KHEDIVES.

Abbas Hilmi, a great-great-grandson of Mahomet Ali, succeeded to the throne in 1892, on the death of his father Tewfik. He was quite a young man and at first failed to comprehend the need of understanding his position as Khedive under the protection of Britain. He secretly encouraged an anti-British agitation, but at last realising his own danger, he submitted without further trouble. He has generally shown himself, at any rate in recent years, to be a man of strong common sense, who recognised the inevitability of the British occupation, and he, at any rate, should have been under no delusion as to the resources and possibilities of British power. He, however, fell into the trap prepared for him by Enver Pasha and his German dictators at the outbreak of war and succumbed to the prospect held out to him of being restored to despotic power in Egypt. He was in the Turkish capital when the war broke out, and he openly acknowledged, as stated in Sir Louis Mallet's despatch, his presence with the expedition organised by the German Embassy for the invasion of Egypt. At the suggestion of Lord Kitchener, he undertook last spring a tour through lower Egypt. On his return from the tour, he left for Vienna and Constantinople, where he has since remained.

Abbas Hilmi has been variously described as the most enlightened oriental prince and as "a Turk at heart with a veneer of Vienna." Here he was educated and from here came one of his wives. Each summer sees him at his Villa on the Bosphorous. Though nominally only a Turkish Governor, it was England's policy to treat him and to address him in every way as a sovereign. And this, despite the fact that international agreements only recognised him as a Viceroy. Casting discretion and interest overboard, it was frequently Abbas's way to follow sentiment and ambition as his guides. He has, at last, paid the penalty for his folly by being deprived of his throne.

The relationship between him and the British Government has never been of the friendliest description. His accession synchronised with the renewal of a period of dissatisfaction and instability. Many excuses have been found for this unfriendly attitude, and the fact appears to be that, having been called to the throne while yet in his teens, he manifested an exaggerated idea of his position. He came into collision with Sir Lord Kitchener by his open affronts to the British officers in the Egyptian Army, early in his reign.

General Kitchener, however, was induced to withdraw his resignation, the ex-Khedive at the bidding of the British Government issuing a general order expressing his approval of the discipline and efficiency of the Army. Abbas and Lord Kitchener met again when the latter went to Cairo as British agent in 1911. The ex-Khedive, who was a shrewd and courageous, if selfish man, realised that the British rule which he hated was sounder than ever, and was moreover, directed by a military genius. There was thus no open rupture but fresh diplomatic bouts between the two adversaries during the two years of the present War Minister's regime in Egypt. This period was marked by the ex-Khedive's defiance of the British Agent's determination to place the administration of the Wakf or Pious foundations on a sound footing. The control of the funds were eventually transferred from the Khedive to the Government. The ex-Khedive's chief hobby has been the private railway which he constructed across the desert in the direction of Tobruk.

In an interview which the ex-Khedive is said to have given to the Constantinople correspondent of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, he is reported to have said :—

"I regard the position with calm and absolute confidence. Without reason and against all justice, Britain has prevented me from returning to my country. Now I know what I must do. My holiest duties compelled me to remain in Constantinople near the suzerain of Egypt.

"A powerful expedition against Egypt is being prepared in Turkey with the object of doing away with the temporary occupation of that country by Britain and restoring the position as it was before 1882. I do not doubt for one moment the complete success of this expedition, any more than the enthusiastic reception on which the famous Turkish Imperial troops may reckon at the hands of all classes of the population.

"I and my people hold firmly to the principles of our religion. We know our duty towards the Sultan, the head of the true believers. I am now preparing to accompany the Turkish Army on its journey to Egypt. With Allah's help I look forward to the speedy success of our plan."

The authenticity of the interview has since been denied, but it is interesting as revealing the political faith of Abbas Hilmi, in view of the situation that has developed in Egypt. His defection has spelt his political suicide.

THE NEW SULTAN OF EGYPT.

Prince Hussein Pasha Kamel, the new Sovereign of Egypt, is the second and favourite son of the late Khedive Ismail, and is now in his sixty-second year. In his 14th year, he was sent to Paris to complete his education, where he stayed as the guest of Napoleon III, with whose ill-fated son, the Prince Imperial, he was on terms of life-long friendship. When the Empress Eugenie came to Egypt for the opening of the Suez Canal two years later, the young Prince was appointed Chamberlain in her suite. He filled a similar rôle in 1889 when the late King Edward (then Prince of Wales) visited the Khedive Fawfik at Cairo. Next year, he was similarly appointed Special High Commissioner on the occasion of the visit of the Russian Crown Prince. The visit of the Empress Eugenie over, he returned to Paris *via* Florence, where his father sent him on a mission to King Victor Emmanuel. The outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War brought his studies to an abrupt termination, and he left Paris before the siege.

Returning to Egypt in his eighteenth year, his father appointed him Inspector-General, and so well did he acquit himself in that post that next year, he was appointed Minister of Public Instruction, Wakfs and Public Works. During the next five years, Prince Hussein was placed successively at the head of all the Egyptian administrations, thus gaining a profound knowledge of affairs.

His tenure of the War Office Portfolio coincided with the most stirring days of pre-occupation in Egypt. He worked for the creation of an African Empire, the Egyptian army under his guidance pushed its way into the heart of the Sudan.

When Ismail was forced to abdicate, Prince Hussein accompanied him into exile, but returned to Egypt in 1883. For many years afterwards he took no part in the administration, because he was on unfriendly terms with his nephew, the deposed Khedive. In January 1909 he however returned to public life and accepted the post of President of the Legislative Council and the General Assembly. He succeeded in raising the tone of these bodies and contrived to make their deliberations more intelligent and useful. He resigned both posts, however, owing to the opposition to the Suez Canal contract, of the utility of which he was convinced, but his arguments had no effect on the Assembly. He is a large landowner, and is well-known for his solicitude for the welfare of the Egyptian peasantry.

THE EGYPTIAN ARMY.

Service in the Egyptian Army is nominally compulsory on all Egyptian subjects between the ages of 19 and 27. The recruits required each year are chosen by ballot, but professors, students and certain others are exempt. Exemption may also be purchased for £E-20 if paid before the ballot.

Mahomet Ali was the first to use conscription among the fellahs. The system employed was so much loathed and dreaded, that the peasants mutilated themselves rather than become soldiers. Even those who had blinded themselves in one eye or cut off the fingers on their right hand were enlisted, men with injured hands being taught to shoot from the left shoulder.


The existing army was disbanded after the Arabi revolt in 1882, and the organisation of a new army and the police were entrusted to two British officers—Sir Evelyn Wood as Sirdar or Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian Army, and General Baker as Inspector-General of Police. The peace effective is limited by law to 18,000 combatants. The Commander-in-Chief is appointed by Khedival decree with the consent of the British Government.

In 1885 an equitable law of recruitment was made and greatly improved upon at the dawn of the new century. Universal liability—for six years in the army, five in the police, and four in the reserve—is still the rule, but only a small percentage is taken and the men are selected. Thus only a fraction of the men liable actually serve. Service is for three years. 188 British officers are attached to the Egyptian army. The army consists of five squadrons of cavalry, a camel corps, five battalions, 18 battalions of infantry (of which six are Sudanese), a railway battalion and various departments. Most of the higher posts are held by British officers. In the Sudanese battalions service is voluntary. The bulk of the army garrison the Sudan.

The British forces stationed in Egypt, known as the Army of Occupation, number 6,000 men. They consist of a cavalry regiment, a horse artillery battery, a mountain battery, a company of engineers, and four battalions stationed in the Nile Delta; and of a battalion of infantry and detachment of garrison artillery stationed in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The Egyptian Government contributes £150,000 towards the cost of these troops.

There is no navy in the proper sense of the term. The Egyptian City Police comprises 122 officers and 3,844 men (282 Europeans) and the Provincial Police 277 officers and 3,928 men.

THE BOY SCOUT MOVEMENT

 THE name of Lieut-General Sir Robert Baden-Powell is associated with the Boy Scout Movement. Started in 1908, it is destined to have a wide-spread influence in promoting good citizenship and in creating and fostering a sense of self-reliance, honor, patriotism, fair-dealing and sympathy. Established on a non-religious basis, boys of all nationalities and creeds are eligible for enlistment and, although only six years have elapsed since Sir Baden-Powell's scheme took form and shape, it has caught on in all parts of the world and even helped to form and to develop the Girl-Guide Movement, as a part of the military scheme, which the Boy-Scout Movement really is.

The South African War with the Boers first gave birth to the idea. The Boer way of waging war was a revelation to the British Officers, and the great value of information—to guard against surprises, to outwit the enemy by stolen marches, to determine the course of advance and defence, to know the way across the trackless veldt, was felt and Boy-Scouts, tried for the first time by Lord Edward Cecil at Mafeking, having performed most meritorious service in this respect, Sir Baden Powell, after the war ceased, began the organization in England of Boy-Scouts. The Colonies followed suit and even in India there are Companies of Boy-Scouts now formed in every important town and city.

A Scout in the Army is what a Ranger was in the war with American Indians in former times, and the valuable information obtained by him is always of the greatest use to Commanding Officers. The head of the Boy-Scouts is called the Chief Scout and there are Scout-Masters in Charge of two or more patrols, each patrol having a leader of its own. A certain number of Scouts form a patrol, which has for its sign some bird or beast and the patrol "call" is an imitation of the cry of that particular creature. In other words each patrol has as its *totem* some bird or beast. Mr. Andrew Lang writing on Totemism says:—"This very extraordinary institution, whatever its origin, cannot have arisen except among men capable of conceiving kinship and all human relationships as existing between themselves and all animate . . . things." The Boy-Scout patrol does not, of course, carry the totemistic idea into other relationships of life, but there can be no doubt that the spirit of kinship or *camaraderie* is created and maintained by the adoption of a particular

emblem or totem, with which the members, forming a patrol are associated. Any boy over ten years of age may be entertained as a Scout, and is classed as a 'tenderfoot' till he has been thoroughly trained.

The training consists of knowing the Scouts' laws, signs and salutes; of what the Union Jack means and how it should be flown; of how to tie a reef, sheet-bend, close-hitch, bowline middle man's and sheepshank. The Scout has to swear an oath, on his honor, to do his duty to God and the King, to help others at all times and to be obedient to the Scout laws. A perfect Scout should know something of the common language of the country he is serving in, something of physical geography, of draughtsmanship and mensuration to make intelligible plans and sketches and something of tactical points. Physically and mentally the Boy-Scout must be alive to the finger tips, and morally *sans peur et sans reproche*.

The Uniform of the Boy Scout is well adapted for the work he has to do. He is picturesque even in khaki from the crown of his soft khaki coloured, flat-brimmed hat to his boots, a loose khaki shirt with dark handkerchief knotted at the throat. With short knickers, putties or stockings and with a long staff the Boy Scout looks work-manlike and, what is of more importance, comfortable.

During the present war the Boy Scout has responded with surprising alacrity and success to the many calls on his activity while the Girl Guides have also been extremely useful. Thousands of letters have been delivered for the Relief Fund asking the public for help, without the delay and expense of postage. The Scouts have burdened themselves with the collection of garments and comforts of all kinds, for the Army at the front, have cordially assisted doctors and nurses in ministering to the wounded in ambulance work, in doing "sentry-go," often doing their duty for long hours without food or rest, and in bad weather without a murmur. Boys in the public schools of England, often in mimic warfare, emulated the feats of Robin Hood and his merry-men, of Fitz-James and Rob Roy McGregor and Chinganggook and the Pathfinder, heroes of boyish admiration and the Boy Scout Movement will diminish nothing of such admiration but will give boys something more to do than merely to initiate at play these great exemplars of phenomenal daring and exceeding craft.



THE 20TH MADRAS INFANTRY.




THE LION AND THE CUBS.

“One touch of danger makes the Empire kin.”

Daily Dispatch.

The Hindu Post-Puberty Marriage Bill

I. BY MR. C. V. KRISHNASWAMI IYER, B.A. B.L., DISTRICT MUNSIFF.

 THE bill "to declare the validity of the marriage of Hindu women after puberty," permission to introduce which was granted sometime ago to the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri by the Madras Legislative Council, will be welcomed by all who have realised and sympathise with the miseries of the child-widow and the baby-mother in this country. This piece of legislation is intended for "all persons governed by the Hindu Law who are domiciled within the presidency of Madras," and its only substantive section runs thus:—

Notwithstanding any custom or any text or rule of Hindu Law to the contrary, no marriage of a woman governed by the Hindu Law, whether performed before or after the commencement of the Act, shall be invalid merely on the ground that at the time of the marriage she had attained puberty.

In considering the merits of the bill it is necessary to realise *exactly* what its aim is. And like the Upanishadic writer who thought that he could best describe "Brahman" by descanting on what "Brahman" was not, I would draw attention to the true scope of this bill by stating what it would not do. To begin with, this bill, if passed into law, will not compel any one, not so inclined, to get his own daughter or sister married after puberty, or even to assent to the virtues of post-puberty marriage as a matter of pious opinion. He may continue to get them married at any time after their birth as before. He may even go further if he likes and follow the example of the man in the story who is said to have tied a *tali* round the neck of a would-be-mother on the understanding that it should be transferred to the baby to be born if it turned out to be a female. Mr. Sastri's Bill will not stand in his way. Nor will it affect anybody's religion, except perhaps that of the person who voluntarily takes advantage of the Act, even if the Hindu social system is, as some think, synonymous with Hindu religion. Other men and women would not be compelled to associate with such a person. They may refuse to share the good things on this sinner's table. They may bar their doors to such a person and make him or her stand outside. He or she cannot compel social recognition from the unwilling. Matathipathies

can issue orders of excommunication against them as before, if so advised. That being so, it is idle to raise the cry of "religion in danger" in connection with this bill. Such a cry is specially inappropriate in a country where the Gandarva form of marriage, which necessarily implies that the bride has attained puberty, was considered good enough for even *superhuman* beings. The cry is also a bit too late, coming as it does, 58 years since the passing of the Hindu Widows Re-marriage Act and 64 years after the Legislature guaranteed freedom of opinion on religious matters by enacting "The Caste Disabilities Removal Act," according to which a Hindu does not lose his legal rights even if he turns his back *completely* upon the Hindu religion. The fact that some critics forget is that Mr. Sastri's bill is only a *permissive* bill, and will merely remove a legal restriction placed on those who voluntarily choose to adopt the system of post-puberty marriage and are prepared to face the social difficulties which it may cause. It has been said that even if that be so, the bill should not be passed into law, for such persons should be protected even as against themselves and that it should not be made easy for them to adopt the "dangerous practice of post-puberty marriages." And the analogy of the State preventing suicide and *Sati* has been mentioned. Like most analogies, this one also is apt to mislead, if not carefully kept within its limits. The views of that great master of the principles of Legislation, Bentham, on the proper scope of legislative restrictions on individual liberty is thus put by Professor Dicey in his recent treatise on "Law and Opinion in England." "Every person is in the main and as a general rule the best judge of his own happiness. Hence Legislation should aim at the removal of all those restrictions on the free action of an individual which are not necessary for securing like freedom on the part of his neighbours." And so, unless it can be shown that the removal of the legal prohibition against post puberty marriages is likely to interfere with the freedom of other citizens of the State or is against the larger interests of the State as such, the citizen who wishes to marry a girl after she attains puberty is

entitled to look to his country's Legislature to have that legal restriction on his freedom removed. What I have said above is enough to show that the freedom of those citizens who are against such marriages is not likely to be affected by the present bill. I do not think that it can be seriously contended that post-puberty marriages are dangerous to the State as such. A thoughtful Census Commissioner has thus balanced the merits and demerits of post and pre-puberty marriages.

"The present conveniences of a system that burdens a boy with a wife long before he has any ability to support one, or that subjects a woman to the inevitable risks of maternity, long before Nature turns the balance of probability to the side of safety, are too successfully inapparent to render search for them a profitable adventure. The extremely rigid Brahman ideal of marriage while by its insistence on premature marriage in the case of girls, it in a sense safeguards female chastity, must necessarily involve certain individual and social evils. In respect to the individual woman the physical effects of early sexual intercourse and premature maternity, which in most cases are the natural *sequelae* of immature marriage, are obvious. Although theoretically immature marriage on the male side is not a necessary complement to that on the female, practically it must be so to a large extent; and the physical consequences though less apparent can hardly be less regrettable. The physical and mental quality of a community made up to an increasing extent of the offspring of immature parents must necessarily deteriorate. The conclusion is not, I think, affected by the fact that the Brahman community has in recent times produced, and will doubtless continue to produce, a certain number of men (of the women it is impossible for an outsider to judge), who in natural intellectual endowment, and in subsequent attainment, take equal rank with the intellectual aristocracy of any nation. A swallow does not make a summer; that the rank and file of this particular community are physically frail and undergrown is a fact which may be observed, and which has frequently been stated to me positively, if regretfully, by Brahmans themselves. With premature marriage the Brahmans, and those who follow the Brahmanical system, have in the case of women associated irrevocability; this in its turn involving, as a natural consequence premature and sterile widowhood. Again, the absolute necessity of premature girl-marriage has given rise to an evil, which has

grown to terrible dimensions in Hindu society. It being imperative on a father to get his daughter married before she reaches a particular age, he must literally do so at all costs. In other words, he must purchase a bridegroom. The social demoralization, which must necessarily result from the cold-blooded sale of bridegrooms by themselves or by their parents, has been described with Zolaesque force by a recent Hindu novelist! As to the advantages of premature marriages, firstly, this system safeguarded for those who adopted it the solidarity of their community and the virtue of their women. But it may be questioned whether such safeguards are necessary at the present age of the world. Cultural and moral difference between many castes is now so slight that, sentiment apart, the possibility of intermarriage has in it nothing terrible; in an age of peace it is not complimentary to Indian womanhood to suggest that it needs protection from itself. Secondly, the Brahmanical system, if it involves a possibility of premature and sterile widowhood, by its insistence on the necessity of marriage does away with the possibility of perpetual and sterile maidenhood, which exists in other countries. Every woman gets at least one chance in the matrimonial lottery; give her two, and probably some other must go without any. Thirdly, if social bonds are once relaxed, liberty in India in this respect is apt to degenerate into license. By a curiously similar line of reasoning Browning's dialectical bishop defended his acquiescence in much of what he did not at heart approve."

It will be seen from what has been stated above that in the opinion of this impartial non-Hindu observer the present practice is both unnecessary and mischievous. In any case, the worst that can be said against marriage after puberty is that it is no improvement over the present system taken as a whole. That is a long way from saying that it is against the larger interests of the State as such. If the experience of the Western nations and of the majority in this country is of any significance, it shows that the reform proposed has not brought about any injury to the State from a temporal point of view. The spiritual results are beyond ordinary mortal ken.

So far for the attitude of the conservatives. It is an irony of fate that there has been as much shaking of heads about this matter among those who are sincerely enthusiastic about post-puberty marriages as among those to whom such marriages are *anathema*. It has been said that the bill is the

result of the Madrasee's unpardonable sin of being intellectual. Benighted Madras has no objection to plead guilty to this soft impeachment of possessing brains. And that is perhaps why it has a clearer view of the legal difficulty than the enthusiasm of some non-Madrases allows them to have. Bombay and Bengal do not want legislation on this matter, it seems. Mr. Sastri's bill is confined to those domiciled in the presidency of Fort St. George, and Madrases and non-Madrases whose lines have fallen on pleasanter places need entertain no fear of its evil results. In Madras itself there are several persons—some of them are leaders of the Hindu community—who consider that the bill is unnecessary, as there is, according to them, no doubt about the legality of post-puberty marriages. But there are also many—equally eminent—who have doubts about the matter, and among them are found distinguished Judges of the Madras High Court—past and present, and the senior Hindu Judge of the Provincial Civil Service. Their opinion cannot certainly be brushed aside unceremoniously as the product of over-subtle brains. Moreover, this is not a matter which can be settled authoritatively by the counting of heads outside a Court or a Council-chamber, and it may well be a case, not uncommon, where the few are in the right and the many wrong. The case for legislation on this point has been put thus by "C.V.K.," whom I happen to know.

"The question whether there is necessity for a validating or what may be more appropriately called a 'doubt removing' enactment placing beyond all doubt the legality of marriages of non-Nambudri Brahmin girls in the Madras Presidency cannot be answered solely, or even mainly, by a reference to the ancient texts dealing with Hindu marriages. The Privy Council has declared, rightly or wrongly, that 'under the Hindu system of the law, clear proof of usage will outweigh the written text of the law.' Whether that view is based on an erroneous translation of some text of Manu or not, lawyers are bound to accept it. An eminent Hindu Judge of the Madras High Court, has felt himself bound by that pronouncement so far as to state that 'I would say, as a judge who is bound to follow the authority of the Privy Council, that the rules of the commentators must be discarded, if opposed to custom.' Now, not even the most enthusiastic supporter of post-puberty marriages can deny that for at least a thousand years, if not for more, Brahmins of Southern India, except the Nambudris, have got their daughters married before

puberty, and that cases of marriages of mature maidens, *openly* celebrated, have been rarer than even the proverbial angel's visits. What is the legal significance of this practice? That is the question which has really to be faced in dealing with the problem on hand, and any opinion which ignores it will be of little value to the judge and the practitioner. Such a long course of conduct, even if it does not establish a valid custom prohibiting post-puberty marriages altogether, will be of great significance in two ways. Firstly, it will be very relevant in determining what the correct interpretation of the ancient texts on the question of marriages is. Secondly, it will show that even if the ancient law was in favour of such marriages, there is good ground for holding that it has become obsolete. Taking the first point, it is no doubt true that there are many distinguished Sanskrit Scholars who are of opinion that the texts of the *Srutis* and the *Smritis* bearing on the subject of Hindu marriage permit marriages of Brahmin girls after puberty. But one cannot honestly deny that an equally large number of scholars hold the view that those texts do not allow post-puberty marriages. Many of them do not perhaps possess Western culture. But they have the advantage of knowing the traditional methods of interpretation, and who that has any appreciation of the place which the 'Purva Meemamsa' system occupies in Sanskrit Literature can deny its great value and importance in interpreting Vedic and post-Vedic texts.

When the texts laying down the law on a point are capable of different construction, it is a well-known rule of legal interpretation that the subsequent practice or usage of the community affected by the law must ordinarily determine what the true construction is. Judging by the test few can be altogether certain that the ancient texts are in favour of post-puberty marriages among Brahmans. Then again, let it be assumed that the ancient texts permit post-puberty marriages. It does not necessarily follow that such marriages are valid now. Several instances may be cited to show that practices, which were valid according to the ancient books, are not legally valid now. For example, Niyoga or the practice of begetting sons on widows of agnatic kinsmen was allowed by the ancient texts. But the Privy Council has held in the Ramnad case that it has become obsolete (12 Moore's Indian Appeals, page 441.) Again, according to some, the ancient texts made non-congenital lameness a bar to inheritance. But Justice Bashyam Iyengar was of opinion that that

rule had become obsolete. (See I. L. R. 26 Madras, 136.) Take again the case of the rights of a 'putrikaputra.' Under the old Hindu law the son of an appointed daughter ('putrikaputra') was equal to an 'aurasa' son. The same learned Judge held in I. L. R. 27 Madras, at page 311, that 'this branch of the law is now obsolete.' Perhaps it may be said that these practices were based on very old texts, and that recent commentators did not support them. Then, take the judgment of Justice Sadasiva Iyer on the impartibility of wells. He held that a rule as to impartibility of waters found in such a comparatively recent book as 'the Mitakshara' has become obsolete. Many more instances of this sort can be easily cited. Surely, a practice which is at least a thousand years old is a good ground for raising a reasonable doubt that a rule of law to the contrary laid down by some very ancient texts has become obsolete. The opinions of some eminent lawyers of Bengal have been cited to show that no doubt can exist as to the validity of post-puberty marriages. I am not sure that they have taken into account the length and the *uniformity* of the practice among Brahmins in South India in giving their opinions. One of them, Mr. S. C. Mitra, says that 'the custom does not seem to be *uniform* in Bengal and as a matter of fact post-puberty marriages are common in Northern India including Bengal, *amongst Brahmins*.' Therefore the considerations that have been set forth above will have little force in Bengal and Northern India, and though the opinions of those Bengalee lawyers may be thoroughly sound as regards those parts of India, they can be of little value in settling the question, in Madras. In this state of affairs, it is incorrect, to put it mildly, to say that the legality of the post-puberty marriages of non-Nambudri Brahmin girls in this Presidency is *beyond doubt*. On the other hand, there is very good support for the opinion that legislation is needed, if not for validating such marriages, at least for the purpose of removing doubts and declaring what the correct law is." And I have only a few more words to add now. The argument that though there may be ancient texts supporting post puberty marriages among Brahmins, the fact that for a long time the South Indian non-Nambudri Brahmins have ceased to get their girls married after puberty will render such texts obsolete, receives much strength from the following observations of Justice, Abdur Rahim of the Madras High Court found in 24 Madras Law Journal page 282, and made by him in dealing with a contention that

the members of a certain sub-caste among the Sudras of South India had lost their right to marry in the *Gandharva* form owing to the absence of such marriages among them *in recent times*. "Supposing for argument's sake that the *Gandharva* form of marriage would, according to the ancient texts, be permissible among the Sudras, I am of opinion that, so far as this caste is concerned, it must from the evidence in this case, be held to be *obsolete* and no longer recognised as valid. It has been strongly contended that if ancient Hindu Law texts sanction this form of marriage we must hold that it is valid. But I am not inclined to accept that position. If I find that a certain caste among the Hindus has long given up this form of marriage, and this is shown by their consistently adopting other more regular forms, I do not think we are still obliged to recognise its validity in that caste." Who can deny that the South Indian non-Nambudri Brahmins had long given up post-puberty marriages and have consistently adopted the "more spiritual" pre-puberty system. In the same case Justice Abdur Rahim expected those who contended that the marriage was valid to produce evidence that the *Gandharva* form was in vogue in that caste and to prove that the marriage was valid, and did not call on those who doubted its validity to prove that that form was obsolete. How much evidence can the South Indian Brahmins produce of post-puberty marriages being in vogue among them *in recent times*? The very concealment of the fact that the girl has attained puberty which is practised in such cases shows that the conscience of the community is against such marriages. And the few—very few instances of such marriages which have openly taken place during the last decade or so, being what lawyers would call *res gestae* cannot form such evidence. It has been stated that post-puberty marriages will be validated by the doctrine of *factum valet*. No Judge has yet applied this doctrine to such marriages. The doctrine applies according to the high authority of Sir Michael Westropp, only to cases where the rule violated is of the nature of a recommendation and is not an *imperative interdiction* (XII Bombay High Court Reports page 398). This view has been affirmed by the Privy Council in 26, Indian Appeals page 144. So whatever other Judges may have said before that decision of the highest Court of appeal, that decision must *now* be taken as laying down the correct view of the ambit of that doctrine. If that doctrine is to validate post-puberty marriages among South Indian Brahmins, it must be

held that the rule prohibiting such marriages is only a *directory* or *recommendatory* rule. That is a difficult matter to decide. One of the texts on which the rule is based—(Parasara Chapter VII, Sloka 9) reduces a Brahmin who marries a Brahmin girl after puberty to the level of the husband of a Sudra girl. That rule is not far from the rule which prohibits the marriage of a Brahmin with a Sudra girl by birth. The latter has long been held to be an imperative interdiction, and Courts will be well justified in holding that a rule which is allowed to it is also an imperative interdiction. Moreover, as Mr. Mayne puts it in his "Hindu Law" rules which were *imperative* once have by force of custom become *directory* now. For example, the rule prohibiting the adoption of an *asagotra* boy after marriage has, in places to which the Mayuka applies, become only a *directory* rule, while in other places it is still an imperative interdiction. In South India, the rule prohibiting the adoption of a daughter's son or a sister's son has become only a directory rule by force of custom, though in Bombay it is a positive interdiction to which the courts refused to apply the doctrine of *fictum valet*. (I.L.R. 111 Bombay, 272). On the same analogy it may well be said that even if the rule prohibiting post-puberty marriages of Brahmin girls was only a directory rule according to the ancient texts, it has in South India become an imperative interdiction by the force of custom. It is therefore very doubtful whether the doctrine of *fictum valet* can be applied to such marriages.

Some consider that if there was any doubt on this question it was removed by the Widow Remarriage Act of 1856. It is argued that under that Act the marriage of a widow even though she has attained puberty is valid; and that it will be illogical to hold that what is valid in case the woman is a widow can be invalid if she is a *Kanya* (unmarried). In construing an Act the following well-settled principles of interpretation have to be kept in view: "The Legislature does not intend to make any substantial alteration in the law beyond what it explicitly declares, either in express terms or by clear implication; or in other words beyond the immediate scope and object of the statute. In all general matters beyond, the law remains undisturbed. . . The specific purposes of an Act include all the incidents or consequences *strictly* resulting from the enactment. . . But this extension of an enactment is confined to its *strictly* necessary incidents or logical consequences." (Maxwell on Interpretation of Statutes). Having

regard to these principles can it be said that the Widow Remarriage Act validates post-puberty marriages of girls who had never before been married? The Act does not refer to such marriage expressly. The report of the debate over that Act does not disclose that the matter of the legality of post-puberty marriage was present in the minds of its framers or of those who helped in passing it into law. The specific object of the Act was only to legalise remarriage of widows. The declaration of the validity of post-puberty marriages of all girls was not necessary for the achievement of that object; nor is it a necessary incident of that Act. The sections of the Act which deal with the remarriage of a widow whose previous marriage had been consummated, and with the custody of the children of the first marriage, and which imply that the widow whose remarriage is validated by the Act may have attained puberty at the time of the second marriage, may have been put into provide for cases of remarriage in castes (e.g. non-Brahmins), in which post-puberty marriages were valid when the Act was passed. These sections do not *compel* one to hold that the second marriage *after puberty* of *even a widow* belonging to a caste in which post-puberty marriages were not in vogue when that Act was enacted, was validated by that Act. If any implication is permissible at all with reference to the validity of post-puberty marriages, from those sections, the only implication that can be fairly made *as regards such castes* is that the circumstance that the widow has attained puberty at the time of the remarriage is no bar. To that extent, perhaps, post-puberty marriage may be taken to have been declared to be valid by that Act, though the guarded wording of its first section is against even that matter being regarded as altogether settled.

It has been suggested by some that the best way to settle the question as to the validity of post-puberty marriages is to file a test suit raising the question in a Madras Court, and that legislation is not the proper remedy. But though fame is the last infirmity of even noble minds, no one will, I fancy, be found so anxious to have the glory of lending his name to a leading case as to run the risk of his marriage or that of any one in whom he is interested being declared invalid. Moreover, decisions have unfortunately short lives sometimes, and no *final* settlement can be arrived at by such means.

Have you considered the consequences of the bill being thrown out, ask some? One does not

find sufficient reason to fear that a Government, which has done so much for the uplift of India in the past, will refuse to render this small help to the party of progress now. And the non-official members of the Madras Legislative Council have been practically unanimous in welcoming this bill, their constituents notwithstanding. Assume, however, that the bill is thrown out, will it seriously affect the situation? The ground on which it will be thrown out will certainly not be that post-puberty marriages are invalid. It may be either that there is no real doubt as regards their validity or that the present time is not propitious for such legislation. That being so, those who believe them to be valid even now will go the old way. Those who think that they are illegal will be none the worse. Perhaps the waverers will fall into line with those who would vote "Invalid." But in a matter of *status* like this, discretion is the better part of valour, and those waverers will not be seriously jeopardised if they have to get on without post-puberty marriages for a

few more years, as their ancestors did for several hundreds of years, till the Government and the Madras Legislative Council see their way to act in accordance with the desire of Hindu Reformers.

It is said that there is really no demand for the bill, and that few Madrasces really anxious to get their daughters married after puberty feel the legal doubt to be an obstacle in their way, and that as regards those who do not want such marriages the Act will be a dead letter. This is a matter about which none can be sure unless a plebiscite is taken. There are certainly a few persons who want such an Act, and their wish is worth attention. And the following words adapted from the speech of Mr. Grant on the Widow Marriage Bill are apposite. "If I know certainly that but one little girl will be saved from the horrors of child-widowhood and baby-motherhood by the passing of this Act, I will pass it for her sake. If I believe as firmly as I believe the contrary, that the Act would be wholly a dead letter, I will pass it for the sake of the English name."

II. BY MR. K. VYASA RAU, B.A.

To meddle with an institution as Marriage in any society, is to meddle with the life-principle of that society, and the question before our Legislature is whether any dominant public justification has been made out to authorise its acceptance of a bill that is calculated to cast the Brahmin Society of South India in an entirely different mould. For, two crucial points can be easily enough established in regard to the bill which must lead to its rejection, not by the Government only, but by the Council itself. In the first place, the plea that the bill is only permissive in its nature is in reality only fictitious and unavailing. If a permissive legislation embodies in it a powerful principle of social disintegration, its permissive aspect is no more than a masque, because, in reality, it is a permissive enactment for the devolution of a social fabric. It is and must always be open to an individual to quit his society if he pleases, or to live as a non-conformist if he chooses; but it ought not to be made permissible for any man to blow up to pieces as far as he can do it the very fabric of the community of which he is a member. This principle is based upon the instinct of self-preservation of every community in the world, and no society on the face of the earth can tolerate a permissive legislation that will destroy its very identity and those prime guarantees in which its

civilisation has depended. The fact is there can be no permissive enactment in regard to departing from the compliance with the basic conditions of a valid marriage in a society.

The other point that will become equally clear is that the innovation belongs to the category of those social remedies which are worse than the disease, furnishing the transitory pathway, as it does, from a state of obligatory marriage to one of optional marriage in Brahmin society. What takes place in Brahmin society at present is pre-puberty betrothal, it being open to the parties to have the betrothal ceremony consummated at any time after puberty. And as a fact in every Brahmin family in South India, unlike in Bengal, there are two ceremonies, one, the betrothal before puberty and the other the consummation, at any time after the girl comes of age. Had it been otherwise, it would not have been left to the Hon'ble Mr. Srinivasa Sastriar to bring in a bill so late as 1914. It may be admitted at once that this system of compulsory pre-puberty betrothal has its drawbacks; but while the worst of them can only be *put off* under a system of post-puberty marriage not one of them can be really avoided—subject to the additional danger of marriage becoming optional in every respect in Brahmin society. Space does not permit my entering into the dangers of a system of optional

marriage; but if one will only reflect what European civilisation is coming to, in spite of all its splendid good points, one can understand that that system has given rise to evils for which there seems to be but blank despair. Let us not rush to embrace a system most of the fruits of which are too bitter to secure a hundredth part of domestic contentment and happiness, of serenity of mind and marital devotion that the Brahmin society knows as a fact that it is enjoying.

The argument has been brought forward that the non-Brahmin Hindus of South India have not suffered for following post-puberty marriage. But, how have they been better than the Brahmins? Besides, how much has not their society been benefited by the Brahmins having in their midst maintained and nourished by a system of pre-puberty betrothal, the Hindu ideal of Woman's place in society! Again, with the freedom, that South Indian Brahmin women enjoy, the pre-disposition to intellectual advancement, that Brahmin girls have, with the difficulty to find bridegrooms in the Brahmin community if pre-puberty betrothal should cease to be regarded as compulsory, gradually but without doubt, Brahmin Society, will lose its identity and be a sixth rate imitation of European Society, no doubt in the long run, but beginning from now. No Brahmin is compelled to remain in the fold or

to conform to all orthodox requirements; but no Brahmin can be permitted either to inject with the life-blood of the community a legislative virus that cannot but deform its lineaments to the dismay of later generations who might look back in vain for a blessing that has been exchanged for a curse. The Brahmin in South India has denied himself many a freedom, mainly that the race to which he belongs may be perpetuated without being lost in an unidentifiable mass. Whatever room there may be in such a Society for other innovations, the simple instinct of self-preservation must revolt against an innovation that will cost it its very identity. To deduce from the enactment enabling Brahmin widows to removing the legality of post-puberty marriages is to overlook the fact that that in no way touches the obligation of every parent or guardian to betroth her in marriage before she has come of age. It is this obligation alone that may be looked upon now as the sole surviving guarantee of maintaining the integrity of Brahmin Society in South India, and no Legislature will be justified in passing a permissive measure for doing away with it, merely because some people are willing to prefer a complete social displacement in the future to a few vexations in the present.

The State and Religious and Social Reform

BY MR. CHIMANLAL MAGANLAL DOCTOR, M.A., LL. B.,

ASSISTANT LEGAL REMEMBRANCER, BARODA STATE.

WHenever Hindu religious and social reformers have invoked state interference on their behalf and pressed for legislation the cry of "religion in danger" has been raised time out of number, and yet, strange to say, Hinduism is still as alive and vigorous as ever and there are no signs of decay. Even the abstract right of the state to interfere in religious and social questions has been sometimes questioned, and the state is asked to follow a *laissez faire* policy in such matters. In England the King is the head of the Church and the State; and it was King Henry VIII who brought about the overthrow of the Roman Catholic Church and the establishment of Protestantism in England. The King is now the head of the Episcopal Church and as such can interfere with it on the advice of his

constitutional advisers. Before the principle of toleration was firmly established in England; there were a number of Acts passed by the state putting the Roman Catholics and Non-conformists under certain disabilities and it was only in recent times that such disabilities were removed and liberty of conscience allowed. In recent times, there was an outcry when the Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill was passed and even at present the Welsh Disestablishment Bill is under consideration. This shows that even now the state claims to legislate on religious questions in England. The state, in the abstract, cannot be denied this right according to any theory of jurisprudence. Otherwise the state will cease to be sovereign and will have its powers limited to certain spheres beyond which it will not be allowed to interfere. A state ought to,

be sovereign in all matters and its powers unlimited. At present attempts are being made to grapple with great national, social and economic evils in England and such legislation has been welcomed by the great body of Englishmen. Even in India, the Government of India have recognised their duties in this respect and have passed the Hindu Widow Re-marriage Act, the Brahmo Civil Marriage Act and the Age of Consent Act in spite of the opposition of the ignorant masses led by reactionary so-called orthodox leaders. The Government were convinced of the necessity of such legislation and put the Acts on the Indian Statute Book. These Acts have been passed and the forebodings of the critics have not proved true. It is one thing to question the abstract right of the State to legislate in social and religious matters and another thing to question the expediency and propriety of a particular piece of legislation. The Government of India permitted the introduction of the celebrated Basu Bill in the Legislative Council though in the end they did not think it expedient to pass it. But the very fact that the Bill was allowed to be introduced shows that the Government believe in the inherent right of the State to legislate in such matters. In India social and religious questions are so much intermixed together, that we may consider these instances as those of state interference in religious and social matters. According to the present-day orthodox Hindus, Hinduism prohibits the re-marriage of widows and yet the Government legalised such re-marriages. Hinduism recognises a valid marriage only between persons belonging to the same varna and yet the Government allowed the Basu Bill, to be introduced, which was comprehensive enough to allow a valid marriage not only between persons of different varnas but also between persons belonging to different nationalities and yet nobody was to be required to renounce Hinduism.

Coming to purely religious questions we find that the state exercised its inherent right when it put down *sutras* (i.e., self-immolation of widows) and human sacrifice.

The vast body of the Hindu population is immersed in ignorance and superstition, is very conservative and backward, and it is vain to argue that the state should sit with folded hands and allow flagrant religious and social evils to grow into the very vitals of the social fabric of the Hindus before their very eyes, merely because nobody demands such interference or only an enlightened microscopic minority, who are in the

vanguard of the social and religious reform movement and feel the evils keenly, have made the demand. No state, with a sense of its dignity, can accept such an argument.

When a foreign government, the members of which profess a religion different from that of the governed, has claimed the right of interfering in crying social and religious evils and exercised the right, much more therefore are the Native Princes entitled to interfere for the religious and social well-being of their subjects who generally belong to the same religion as that of their rulers. In fact if we dive into our religious scriptures, we find that it is the king's sacred duty to protect the cows, Brahmins and the Varnashrama Dharma. In the Mahabharata, the Smritis of Manu and Yagnavalkya, and the Purans we find that the king is enjoined to see that the four varnas properly discharge their duties and do not go astray. The king was considered as Vishnu on earth, the Defender of the Faith, and it was a heinous crime in him to neglect his kingly duties. Even the untimely death of a child was supposed to have been caused by a breach of the Varnashrama Dharma and the king was held responsible for it as the breach must have taken place owing to his gross neglect as will be found from the story of Shambuka and Rama, described in the Ramayana: when the Hindu Shastras lay down the duties of a king so strictly, it is but proper that Hindu Princes should claim and exercise their right of interfering in religious and social matters, for the good of their Hindu subjects; most of the Native Princes are in subordinate alliance with His Majesty and are Sovereign as regards internal administration. They have full powers of legislation so long as they do not interfere with the principle of toleration of religion. From a historical point of view there are numerous instances of state interference in religious and caste questions from times immemorial as may be seen, for instance from the latest Baroda Census Report. In recent times, the Mysore Government passed the Infant Marriage Prevention Act which was a piece of socio-religious legislation; while His Highness the Maharaja Sir Sayojirao, Gaekwar of Baroda, who is one of most enlightened Princes of India and is so solicitous for the good of his subjects and his countrymen, has exercised the right of interfering in religious and social questions by passing the Infant Marriage Prevention Act, the Widow Remarriage Act, the Liberty of Conscience Act and the Civil Marriage Act,



BRITISH NAVAL UNIFORM.



BR SH MILITARY NIFOR

THE SLAYER

BY MRS. SAROJINI NAIDU.

*Love, if at dawn some passer by should say
"Lo! doth thy raiment diep with morning dew,
Thy face, perchance, is drenched with wild sea-spray,
Thy hair with fallen rain,"
Make answer Nay*

*These be the death drops from sad eyes blue
With the quick torch of pain.*

*And if at dusk some reveller should cry
"What rare vermillion vintage hast thou spilled?
Or is thy robe splashed with pomegranate dye,
Or bruised soft crimson leaf,"
(O Love, reply*

*These be the life drops from a heart I killed
With the swift spear of grief.*

CURRENT EVENTS

BY RAJDUARI.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS.

THE month of operation on the theatres of war was one of new developments, the root of which may be traced to the intense spirit of desperation which the enemy is displaying in more than one way. Foiled in their well-laid out strategy, deluded in their anticipations, and baffled by the sturdy front presented by the Allied forces at all points, east and west the Germans have adopted methods of warfare which are not only in gross violation of international agreement, but of a most diabolical character. Their cruelty and barbaric treatment of war-prisoners has no parallel in the history of the world. Their disregard of the innocent and the helpless children and females,

is of a character before which even the alleged Hersdian atrocities may pale. In their impotent rage and fury they have been baying at the moon and howling like those stricken with hydrophobia against the British. In their eyes there is no nation now on the face of the earth who is more to be hated than the English. Their press pours forth daily columns after columns of abuse, abuse vitriolic and abuse of the vulgarest, which are proofs positive of the very opposite of "Kultur," of which they had hitherto so pharisaically boasted. They have systematically started a campaign of bomb-throwing by means of air vessels and of sinking vessels, those of the Allies or others, by means of submarines. The east coast of England was attacked again

and again for the purpose of intimidating and frightening the innocent civil population. Bombs were thrown which though not effective were still destructive enough to damage buildings and kill helpless women and children walking about the streets. Encouraged by the two or three raids on the east coast, the enemy stealthily appeared on the Irish Channel and laid a submarine to blow away a strong merchant vessel. But the more that such bomb-throwing and submarine sinking came to be regarded as negligible and the more they proved unsuccessful, the greater was their persistence in pursuing such profitless and insensate warfare which has brought no glory to the German name. Meanwhile the inadequacy of the food supply has angered him beyond all compare. In his wrath he issued a proclamation a fortnight ago, that from the 18th instant, the whole of the Atlantic will be deemed a military zone within which all vessels bringing any cargo would be sunk! The proclamation has caused the greatest indignation among the neutrals and non-belligerents and no country has been more excited, and on the brink of a war, than the United States. Barring the wealthy Germans, naturalised and others, the entire population of those States has denounced the atrocious and piratical character of that proclamation. England, however, has taken this menace calmly and composedly. The spirit of the nation has accepted this challenge with coolness as if to say, "do your worst, we shall see how you carry out your threat without further strangling yourself." As we write, to-day is the second day of the proclamation and it remains to be seen what colossal atrocities its submarines are going to perpetrate.

Meanwhile the four weeks, though eventful, both in the east and west, have gained him not a single success. If at all, the repeated violent artillery attacks and hurling of good troops in masses, have only resulted in brutal carnage and he has been the greatest sufferer. Blood on his side is being literally shed like water. But his fury is unabated. Like the wounded adder he darts forward and forward only to receive fresh wounds to be eventually exhausted and extinguished. This is the woeful tale. Not content with these Satanic tactics and actions, he has been doing his worst to inflame the passions of the Moslem in northern Africa, in Egypt, in Asiatic Turkey, and in Arabia but to no purpose. He expected India to mutiny, but on the contrary he has found to his bitter cost that India to a man has firmly held with the Allies and supported

them with the flower of her army which has fought with conspicuous gallantry on their side and covered itself with laurels and the admiration of the world. The Mahomedans in every part have stood steadfast by the side of the Allies, save those of the suicidal Turkey. Even the distant Mahomedans of China have denounced the enemy and expressed their deepest sympathy for the Allies, feeling that their fight was the fight of the righteous. The misguided Turks in Asia Minor have fought and lost all their own. They have fled or escaped for protection in other directions only to be hunted out eventually and expelled from the zone of the operations. The Russian soldiery have driven away these misguided Turks, commanded by German Generals in receipt of extravagant pay from the bankrupt Constantinople treasury, from Tabriz which has been recaptured by the Russians. The plot to turn away Persia from the Allies has also proved an ignominious failure. Next, Egypt was deemed an important objective with a view to blocking up the Canal. But the Canal company, armed at all points and secure in its strength has laughed to scorn the mad attempts directed against that world's great highway of commerce to the East. A force crossed the desert with great difficulties at Kantaru only to be scattered, and the fugitive is captured along with war and other materials. Thus the ill-fated Turks are like the tribe of wandering Jeiro, with none to support them. They are doomed and the Ottoman despotism of five hundred years is on the brink of disruption for ever. And a great part of the country in Asia must soon pass to the conquerors.

In South Africa, too, the enemy, both in the eastern and western waters, has been worsted with great loss. Here also it is only a question of time to consolidate the entire British dominion. Thus near at home and abroad the enemy has been driven away. Neither has he been successful on the waters. After her cruisers on the Falkland Isles were sunk by the British navy, the Atlantic has been set free for merchant vessels to sail freely. He tried a raid on one fine day to have a bout with Admiral Jellicoe's naval craft only to lose a first-class warship and damage hopelessly three others. The *Blucher* deserved the fate which she courted and she was all aflame by the bombing cannonade of the British navy and sank while presenting a scene of the greatest horror. In matters of aviation too, the enemy has been foiled. Its ships, wherever they have flown, have in

most cases come to grief and, become practically useless for purposes of aircraft. The splendid feats performed recently by the two air fleets of 34 and 40 aeroplanes on the Belgian coast have proved to the world the superiority of the British airmen. French aviators, too, have displayed remarkable strategy and bravery on the eastern frontiers. The damage done to military stations and military place of arms at Dunkirk are a source of the greatest vexation to the enemy. It remains, however, to be seen what German aircraft and submarine strategy combined, is capable of doing in the military region proclaimed by the enemy. It may be an insidious attempt to force Admiral Jellicoe's fleet to move from its base. In that case no doubt that naval strategist will be able to give a good account to the British people. The drama is freshly developing, now that spring is approaching and the rigours of the winter are diminishing. Mr. Churchill has already in the House of Commons given a graphic account of what the Admiralty has done in the past and what it means to do in the immediate future. Though the tone of his narrative was optimistic it was no more optimistic than justified by the accomplished facts. And the optimism entertained for the future, rests on the solid ground of that additional naval strength, the nation has been able to place at the disposal of the admiral of the fleet. The press and the people are gratified at Mr. Churchill's frank account in which so able an expert as Lord Charles Beresford has been able to approve heartily. Field Marshal French on his side has also sent a long despatch of his operations home, which has been the theme of great admiration. It is recognised in all quarters that England is better equipped both by land and sea now than it was at the outbreak of the war, while a new army of a million men is being rapidly drilled and trained. Of course, the future is on the knees of the gods and we are all aware of the fortunes of war. But so far as we are able to judge from accomplished facts, there is every reason to hope that the armies of the Allies in the west and east of Europe have every chance of victory to their arms.

WAR FINANCES.

Referring to the finances of the war, the great speech made by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the House of Commons, was every way worthy of

his high office, worthy of the great nation which is sacrificing so much, and worthy of the sagacity and business-like ability of Mr. Lloyd George. Never in the financial history of England, a Chancellor has had to deal with matters of a colossal and almost novel character as he. Thanks, however, to the patriotic spirit of co-operation and support, he has been able to manage the finances in a way which has elicited the admiration of the civilised world. Wealthy England with her resources is in a position to continue the war to its bitter end till the militant domination of the modern Huns has been overthrown for ever and solid peace restored which shall allow weak and oppressed nationalities to evolve their regeneration unmolested with wisdom and wealth. Hundreds of millions have been already spent, and hundreds of millions more must be spent, but England has declared to the world through her Chancellor that she is fully able to bear the strain without exhaustion. Meanwhile, the trade of the civilised world, though somewhat crippled, is going on as usual. There was a conference of the Financial Ministers at Paris, where, the wise policy of financial co-operation was unanimously laid down, the principal feature of which is to assist the weaker nationalities which are desirous of coming into a line with the Allies. Apart from this, the great daughter colonies are to be financed by the mother country, whenever financial aid is demanded. All these are matters of the highest satisfaction. On the other hand, the economic pressure in Germany is being keenly felt from day to day. The food supply is nearing exhaustion so much so that the state has taken in hand the control of the supply of the bread under diverse pains and penalties to those who may break the conditions of the food ordinance. Germany through her minister has openly declared that the British blockade of the German coast has been so far successful as to have brought now a regular famine. The army has to be fed but there is not much food left. Immense sacrifices are being endured by the misguided and misled people, for whom we cannot have but sympathy in their sufferings. But war is an inexorable fate to which all have to submit. May Heaven soon end it for the famine-stricken, the aggrieved, and for all those who keenly desire a firm and solid peace which shall make us soon forget the prevailing horrors and distress!

THE WORLD OF BOOKS

[SHORT NOTICES ONLY APPEAR IN THIS SECTION.]

Reflections on the Problems of India. By A. S. Wadia, M. A. J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd., London and Toronto.

In this thought-compelling volume, the author presents new view-points of some of the present educational, social, industrial and political problems of India. He does not follow the track of what are called orthodox views: the best way of approaching these problems, he considers, is by clearing one's mind of cant. Resolutely perverse, he appears at times to be even unnecessarily aggressive and carried away by his vehemence. He believes that Indians of the present day can only hope to serve their country by their failures. One of the momentous problems of modern India is, admittedly, that of universal mass education. This Mr. Wadia imagines, is covertly designed to fit the masses for self-government, and he denounces the efforts for India's uplift through this means "to be no better than mere ploughing of the sands of the sea-shore." He upholds the caste-system because he regards it as consisting of mere broad social divisions, as the *chef d'œuvre* of Hindu polity, the work of nature, not of Manu. He condemns the factorisation of India on the ground that a scheme of life involving strenuous struggle for existence is unsuited to her masses. With regard to the political future of India, Mr. Wadia thinks it impossible for her sons to unite themselves into a nation and so develop that community of interests which is essential for organised self-government. Mr. Wadia's reflections on the problems of India, though one may often see things in a light different from him, arrest attention and compel thoughtful enquiry.

The Karma Philosophy. Compiled by Bhagu F. Karbhari, "The Jain" Office, Bombay.

The book is a collection of the writings and speeches of the late Virchand R. Gandhi, B.A., M.R.A.S., Bar-at-Law, the Jain delegate to the Parliament of Religions, Chicago. The trustees of the Devchand Lalbhai Pustahoddhar Fund, Bombay, have done well in placing before the public a carefully compiled volume which is an authoritative compendium of the Jain Faith. Mr. Karbhari, the Editor of the *Jain*, and several works in Jainism has given a lucid presentation of the available material on the subject. The volume is well printed and got up and can be had for a shilling or five annas.

Kusumalata. By Ramachandra, Orderly Bazaar, Benares.

The book contains an imaginary poem by Mr Ramachandra. The printing is good and the verse interesting.

Neo-Theosophy Exposed. By F. T. Brooks.

We have also received a copy of "Neo-Theosophy Exposed" by F. T. Brooks, which contains a statement of the case against Theosophy and its doctrines.

The Present Educational System in Germany. By W. Chowdhrey, Ph. D. Price Rs. 1-8-0.

The book is ably written and contains a mine of useful information with regard to the educational system of Germany in all its branches. The author has dwelt at some length on the methods and subjects of the several schools and universities. The author has touched also upon the historical aspects of German education. The German system of education is one of the most up-to-date and successful systems of the world. A study of it therefore should be highly useful to the Indian public.

The Light Hour Series. By V. P. Krishnaswami. C. Coomarasami Naidu & Sons, Madras.

This is a series of seven excellent booklets in Tamil delightfully conceived and written. The stories have no pretensions to subtlety of characterization or development of intricate plots but in vividness of portraiture and reality of interest they can scarcely be surpassed. The author does not aim at flights of imagination or thrilling romance but there can be no more wholesome literature for Indian women than these pictures of home-life.

The Rev. Dr. Miller C. I. E. A sketch of his life and his services to India. "The friends of India series" of Messrs G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras, can never be complete without the sketch of this well known educationist. The biography of his life is pre-eminently the history of University Education in the Madras Presidency in general and the progress of the Madras Christian College in particular. For close upon half a century, no man has been more intimately associated with the fortunes of South Indian Students and it is hoped that this sketch of their guide, friend and philosopher will be readily appreciated by them. The book has an excellent likeness of Dr. Miller. It is priced annas Four only.

Hazell's Annual, 1915.— *Ed. by T. A. Ingram M. A. L. L. D., Hazell, Watson & Viney Ltd., London.*

The 1915 edition of HAZELL'S ANNUAL (now in its thirtieth year of issue) makes another stride forward as one of the most comprehensive works of reference. Some idea of the extraordinary extent and variety of the information compressed into this handy book may be had from a perusal of the index which contains close upon 20,000 entries. Naturally, this ever memorable year claims for its wonderful happenings a proper share of attention. The articles devoted to the "Great War" occupy some thirty pages.

What with the usual items of interest that are its special features, the HAZELL'S ANNUAL has, with its thirtieth issue, entered on an entirely new career of usefulness as an indispensable work of reference.

A Text book of Theosophy. *By C. W. Leadbeater. Published by the Theosophical Publishing House, Adyar.*

The book contains a statement of the esoteric and other doctrines held by the Theosophists.

The Life and Life-work of J. N. Tata
By D. E. Wacha. Ganesh & Co., Madras.

As a patriotic captain of Industry, Mr. Tata's name has won an honoured place in the affections of his countrymen. Mr. Wacha's peculiar fitness for writing a book of this kind, besides his well-known intimacy with his hero, is all that is demanded of an ideal biographer. It is no wonder that we have a fascinating account of the great industrial captain, written with all the enthusiasm and energy, so characteristic of the writer and so apposite to the subject.

Concentration: A Practical course. *By Ernest Wood and Published by the Theosophical Publishing House, Adyar.*

The author is well-known for his attainments and learning. His aim in this book is a practical one—to help the reader to make practical attempts at meditation and concentration of mind. As the author says in his preface, the practical instruction put forth in the book are the fruits and suggestions of his experience extending over some fifteen years. The book is well-printed and well-bound.

DIARY OF THE WAR

January 15. Fierce German attacks repulsed by Allies.
Turkish advance in Asia Minor suspended.
Boer success on Orange River, Germans driven back.
Canada's splendid loyalty.

January 16. Fighting on the Aisne.
General Von Kluck's big movement.
Partial German success.
British success at La Bassée.
British airmen bombard Antwerp.
Germans repulsed on Vistula.
Internal troubles in Vienna.
Defeat of Turkish rearguard at Karaugan.
Turkish aggression in Persia.
Boer revolt; success of Union Forces.
Occupation of Swakopmund.

January 17. Fighting at Soissons.
German Cavalry repulsed on Lower Vistula.
Fighting at Karaugan, more Russian successes.

January 18. Fighting in Belgium and France.
Important French advance.
Germans abandon La Bassée.
Calm on Russian front.
Turkish aggression in Persia.
Two Persian Governors shot.
Anglo-American relations, trade with Germany.

January 19. Continued progress of the Allies.
Russian advance on Thorn.

Kiribaba Pass, in Carpathians, seized.

General discontent in Austria.

Battle of Karaugan; complete Russian victory.

Turkish aggression in Persia.

Governor of Tabriz wounded.

Mines in the Baltic, five German steamers sunk.

Resignation of the Secretary of German Treasury.

January 20. The battle of Soissons.

Dash for Paris.

General Joffre's sound strategy.

Gallantry of Indian troops at La Bassée.

The Russian campaign, fruitless German attacks.

Austrian bombardment of Tarnov checked.

January 21. Air raid on England, airships near Sandringham, bombs at Hunstanton and King's Lynn.

Calm at Soissons.

Intermittent fighting elsewhere.

Calm on Russian frontier.

January 22. Air raid on England; damage at Yarmouth.
Allies' slow advance.

French explanation.

German tactics on the Aisne.

More Russian successes against the Germans.

Complete rout of Turks.

Russian pursuit in Trans Chorok country.

- January 23. British air raid on Ostend, Zeebrugge and Essen.
German bombardment of Nieuport.
Fierce Infantry battle at Weilerkopf.
Turco-Russian hostilities, retreat of Turks in Caucasus.
French submarine sunk in the Dardanelles.
- January 24. British heroism at St. Omer.
German assaults repulsed.
Russian advance into Hungary and Transylvania.
Further Russian successes in Caucasus.
- January 25. Naval raid in North Sea.
German cruiser *Blucher* Sunk.
Two German battle cruisers badly damaged.
Successful Artillery duels.
Germans checked at Argonne.
Aerial battle over Dunkirk.
Fighting on the Lower Vistula.
German offensive checked.
M. Millerand's visit to London.
Dutch mobilisation, entire military forces called out.
- January 26. Fighting near Zillebeke.
An attack on Arras and fierce fighting in Alsace.
German and Austrian advances on the Vistula and Galicia respectively, repulsed with heavy loss.
Turkish defeats in Chorsan.
Turkish territory occupied.
Dutch neutrality violated by German aircraft
Netherland Government protests.
Boer revolt. Rebel attack on Upington repulsed.
- January 27. British air raid on Essen, motor sheds destroyed.
Austrian activity in Carpathians.
Germans on the Vistula; occupation of Dobrizyn.
- January 28. The North Sea battle; further details.
German cruiser torpedoed in the Baltic.
Progress of Belgians on the Yser front.
German reverse at La Bassée.
Fighting on the Vistula; heavy German losses.
Turkish designs on Egypt.
Raid on the Suez Canal;
Fighting at El Kantara.
Zeppelin attack on Libau.
Italy and Roumania; territorial concessions refused by Austria.
Germany's wheat and flour supply; all stocks to be seized by Government.
Turkish aerial fleet sunk by Russians near Sinepe.
- January 29. Battle of La Bassée; utter failure of German attack.
Germans repulsed on the Vistula and in Galicia.
Djavid Pasha appointed Generalissimo.
British loan of £5 millions to Roumania.
Persian Gulf Expedition. Heavy Turkish losses at Kurna and Mazera, Turkish force near Mazera.
- January 30. German air raid on Dunkirk frustrated.
Steady progress of the Allies.
Important Russian victory in the Carpathians.
Russian progress in East Prussia.
Enver Pasha at Erzerum, re-officers Ninth Army.
Economic position of belligerents.
Austrian Foreign Minister's visit to Berlin.
Austrian and German troops massing in the Carpathians.
- January 31. Battle of the Aisne.
German attempt to cross repulsed.
Russian progress in Galicia.
Important Russian developments in East Prussia.
Austrian grain monopoly.
- February 1. German attack on Cuinchy repulsed by British.
Daring feat of French aviator, M. Pegond.
Heavy German losses at Lombartzyde and La Bassée.
Fierce fighting in Argonne
Turkish advance on the Suez Canal.
German submarine in Irish Sea torpedoes British merchant vessels.
- February 2. German submarine raid.
Allies successes along the Aisne front.
Russian strong position in the Carpathians and on the Vistula.
Outflanking movement in Mazurian Lake region.
Russian naval raids on Trebizond; barracks, and stores destroyed.
Russian occupation of Tabriz.
Kaiser's return to Berlin.
- February 3. German surprise at Albert repulsed.
German activity in Argonne.
Impetuous German attacks at Bolimoff, repulsed by the Russians.
The Nyasaland rising; chase and capture of ring-leaders.
- February 4. Progress of Allies.
Desperate German attacks repulsed.
The North Sea Battle, *Seydlitz* badly damaged.
Opening of British Parliament, food prices enquiry.
St. Croix Bridge in Maine U.S., blown up by German officer.
- February 5. Russian successes in Prussia and the Carpathians.
Pressure on the Austrians.
Attacks on the Suez Canal.
Retreat of the Turks near Ismailia.
- February 6. German threat to neutral ships.
Great indignation in U.S.A.
Air raid on Paris frustrated.
Notable Russian successes.
Meeting of Allied Finance Ministers.
Fierce fighting before Warsaw.
Turkish repulse on the Suez.
- February 7. Fierce fighting on the Vistula and Bzura.
Critical situation in Przemyśl.
German naval losses.
Entente financial arrangement.
The Pope's efforts for peace.
- February 8. Sinking of a British merchantman.
German bombardment of Ypres and other towns.
Fighting on the Vistula.
Russian offensive on the Carpathians.
- February 9. German Blockade order creating a sensation in neutral countries.
Strong American and Dutch Press views.
Naval activity in the Black Sea.
Speech by Russian Premier.
Bayonet fighting in the rear.
- February 10. Views of international jurists on German blockade.
Fifty Turkish ships sunk.
Serious situation in Poland.

February 11. The German blockade, strong protests by neutral countries.
Russian success in East Prussia and the Carpathians.
Breslau bombards Yalta,
Russians retaliate on Trebizond.
Stormy scenes in the Prussian Diet.
The Boer revolt; Maritz executed by the Germans for treachery.

February 12. The German Blockade, views of international jurists.
Severe fighting at Maria Theresa.
Deplorable conditions in Hungary.
Russian bombardment of Trebizond, fifty sailing vessels sunk.

Russian Duma, cordial greetings to the Allies.
February 13. Great British air raid on North Sea ports.
Violent fighting near Bagatelle.
Russian retirement in East Prussia.
Germany's fresh efforts.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
Turkish advances on the Suez Canal abandoned.

February 14. German activity in Argonne.
A British success near La-Bassee.
Turkish transport sunk in the Black Sea.
British Mounted patrol burn two towns in German S. W. Africa.

February 15. German blockade; use of neutral flag.
American Note to Great Britain.
Artillery duels in Belgium; bombardment of Newport, Ypres and Rheims.
President Poincaré visits troops in Alsace.
German advances in East Prussia.
Strong reinforcements arriving.

February 16. Mr. Winston Churchill on the Navy.
Allies finance agreements, a statement by Mr. Lloyd George.
Stubborn fighting at Bagatelle.
Battle raging on the Vistula.
Austrian air raid in Montenegro.
Fighting near Sinai; Turkish detachment annihilated.

February 17. Bombardment of Antivari.
Progress on the western front.
Franco-British air raid.
Russian advance in Carpathians.

February 18. Sir John French's Despatch.
Stubborn fighting near Augustove.
Situation in Carpathians unchanged.
German blockade; sinking of the *Dulwich*.
Germany's insufficient food-supply.

DIARY OF THE MONTH

February 1. This afternoon the Lieut. Governor of the Punjab opened the Arts and Crafts Exhibition at the Museum, Lahore.

An important meeting of the Hindu University was held at Benares when it was announced that H. E. the Viceroy has consented to lay the foundation stone of the University building.

February 2. The annual meeting of the Y. W. C. A. was held at Bombay.

In the Ferozepore murder conspiracy case to-day, the Sessions Judge passed the death sentence on all the seven accused.

February 3. At the annual meeting of the S. P. C. A., Bombay, H. E. Lord Wellington presided and urged that their consideration should be extended to smaller animals as well.

February 4. Sir Harcourt Butler opened the Roos Keppel Hall at Islamia College, Peshawar.

February 5. H. E. the Viceroy's arrival at the Persian Gulf and the investiture of Sheikh Sir Mubarak Bin Subah, Ruler of Koweit, is published at some length.

February 6. His Majesty King George, to-day received Prince Prachatipok, brother of H. M. the King of Siam.

February 7. The Tata Hydro-Electric Scheme was opened by H. E. the Governor of Bombay.

February 8. The President and members of the Poona City municipality this morning accorded a public reception to Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi.

February 9. The Additional Judge of Sukkur has given sanction to the proposal of the Liquidators of the People's Bank of India, that all the creditors of the

Bank for the sum of Rs. 10 and under be given the option of accepting immediate cash to the extent of Rs. 10 in the rupee in full discharge of their claims.

February 10. In the Punjab Chief Court to-day judgment was given in the Delhi conspiracy case. The Judges confirmed the sentences on Abad Behari, Amir Chand and Balmokand. The appeal against the acquittal of Charan Das was accepted, and he was sentenced to transportation for life. The revision application against Basanta Kumar was allowed, and he was sentenced to death. The appeals of Balraj and Hanwan-Shahai were partially accepted, and they were sentenced to seven years' imprisonment.

February 11. The International Socialists Conference passed a Resolution pledging socialists to work for international arbitration.

February 12. Sir Starr Jameson and Sir Charles Metcalfe have arrived in Bombay.

February 13. It is decided to award State technical scholarships for town planning and architecture.

February 14. H. E. the Viceroy returned to Delhi.

February 15. The eleventh session of the Sri Mulam Popular Assembly opened to day at Trivandrum.

February 16. Six of the seven accused in the Ferozepore murder case have filed appeals.

February 17. Six Bengalis have been arrested in connection with the attempt to murder one Mr. Bose.

February 18. The Hon. Mr. Gokhale is reported seriously ill and unable to move to Delhi.

February 19. The sad news of the death of Mr. Gokhale at Poona is announced.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- LIFE OF SIR JOHN LUBBOCK: LORD AVEBURY.** By Horace G. Hutchinson, (in two volumes). Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Limited, London.
- THE LAWS OF ALGEBRA.** (An Elementary Course in Algebraic Theory). By A. G. Cracknell, M.A., B. Sc. University Tutorial Press, Ltd., London.
- NOTES ON TEACHING GEOGRAPHY:** (Designed for Indian schools). By W. S. Deming, B.A. The Christian Literature Society for India, Madras.
- THE OTTOMAN TURKS:** By the Rev. Canon Sell, D. D., M.R.A.S. The Christian Literature Society for India, Madras.
- THE CHILD'S A. B. C. OF THE WAR.** By Geoffrey Whitworth and Stanley North. George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., Museum Street, London.
- THE MASSACRE OF THE INNOCENTS.** By Maurice Maeterlinck. George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., Museum Street, London.
- PICTURES OF BUDDHIST CEYLON AND OTHER PAPERS** By F. L. Woodward, M.A. Theosophical Publishing House, Adyar.
- THE TRIPLE PLY OF LIFE AND OTHER ESSAYS.** By Minnie B. Theobald. Messrs. Higginbothams, Ltd., Madras.
- PANCHATANTRAM** (in Telugu). The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- MUHAMMAD AND THE BIBLE.** By Rev. W. Goldsack, The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- NOTES ON LOGIC.** By Rev. F. T. Shipham, B.A., The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- THE PRINCE OF PEACE.** By Frederick Grubb Kent and Mathews, Ltd., London.
- MY HEART'S RIGHT THERE.** By Florence L. Barclay. G. P. Putnam's Sons, London.

BOOKS RELATING TO INDIA.

- THE INDIAN AND EASTERN ENGINEER YEAR BOOK 1915.** The Indian and Eastern Engineer Co., Ltd., Calcutta.
- B. M. MALABARI.** By Sirdar Jogendra Singh. G. Bell & Sons, Ltd., London.
- AGRICULTURE IN MYSORE.** By Signor W. Mari. Published by the Mysore Economic Conference.
- HAND-BOOK OF MUSICAL EVANGELISM.** By L. J. Stephen and H. A. Popley, Methodist Publishing House, Madras.

A READABLE DICTIONARY OF PHRASES, IDIOMS AND COLLOQUIALISMS. By Babu Lal Sud, Bar.-at-Law, Kapurthala.

SVARNALATA. By T. N. Ganguli. Translated by Dakshinacharan Roy. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., London.

LETTERS FROM PERSIA AND INDIA: 1857-1859. (A Subaltern's Experiences in War) By the late General Sir George Digby Barker. G. Bell and sons, Ltd., London.

HISTORY OF UPPER ASSAM, UPPER BURMAH, AND NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER. By Col. L. W. Shakespeare (Colonel, 2nd Goorkhas.) Messrs. MacMillan & Co., Ltd., London.

MISCELLANEOUS WRITINGS OF THE LATE HON'BLE MR. JUSTICE RANADE. Published by Mrs. Ramabhai Ranade-with an introduction by Mr. D. E. Wacha. The Maroranjjan Press, Bombay.

INDIA IN ENGLISH AND INDIAN PERIODICALS.

SANSKRIT CONCEPTION OF POETRY COMPARED WITH ENGLISH. By Prof. K. N. Dravid, M.A. ["Fergusson College Magazine," January, 1915].

MR. GANDHI'S HOME COMING. By Mr. G. A. Natesan. [The "Indian Emigrant," January, 1915].

THE INDIAN HOME. By Miss. R. Chellawal. ["East and West," February, 1915].

THE ETHICAL ASPECT OF THE VEDANTA. By Prof. K. Sundararama Iyer, M.A. [The "Vedanta Kesari," January, 1915].

SOME EFFECTS OF RECENT CURRENCY LEGISLATION IN INDIA. By an "Indian Economist." [The "Hindustan Review," January, 1915].

EVANGELIC WORK IN INDIAN MISSION COLLEGES. By F. F. Monk. [The "East and West," January, 1915].

PRAHLADA, THE HERALD OF AN AVATAR. By P. R. Soondararaja Iyer. [The "Theosophist," February, 1915].

INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMENTARY ON THE RIG AND OTHER VEDAS. By Prof. Pandit Ghasi Ram, M.A., LL.B. [The "Vedic Magazine," January, 1915].

THE FUTURE OF EDUCATED INDIA. By The Late Rai Bahadur Lala Baij Nath. [The "Modern Review," February, 1915].

INDIA'S RALLY ROUND THE FLAG. By A. Yusuf Ali, I.C.S., Rd. [The "Asiatic Review," January, 1915].

TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS

CHRISTIANITY IN JAVA.

Mr. J. W. Gunning gives in the January issue of the *Moslem World* an idea as to the extent of ground gained by Christianity in the populous land of Java. The Javanese are of course not Moslems in the true sense of the word and are influenced in their life and practice by animistic, Hindu and Buddhist elements. The Dutch Government is strictly neutral as regards all religious movements and hence evangelisation is entirely left to voluntary effort. Of late, European influence was often too strong in missionary effort and too little room was left for that which was typically native and Javanese, and hence the initiative of the native Church was not developed. The justification for this preponderance of the European element is that at the outset, without European direction and control, Christianity was in danger of becoming only a new element in Javanese syncretism. Apart from this, there can be no complaint as to this distribution of the various mission stations nor as to their methods of evangelisation. The prospects of mission work are now greater than ever. Java is feeling the influence of the intellectual movements that are sweeping over the East and all sections of the people are seized with a desire to adopt European culture. There is a possibility that this forward mission movement will awaken Moslem opposition and fanaticism, and the only available remedy for the situation is the encouragement of missionary education in such a way that shall give the Javanese, culture suitable for them, and not in conflict with the best characteristics of their traditions. Otherwise, when Western culture is merely taken in, but not assimilated, we can only expect a reaction with the tendency to destroy whatever good work the missions may have done by that time and thus the opposition may turn out to be anti-Christian as well as anti-European. The increase of Christian hospitals is 'a golden opportunity to establish work which will offer a vivid illustration to the Javanese, of the real character of Christianity and of its message of mercy.' Thus educational and medical work, though not purely evangelistic will afford indirect assistance to the movement and are not in any sense fruitless.

ANGLO-INDIANS AND CHRISTIANITY.

A retired Indian official whose experience of India was acquired in our Presidency, puts forward some suggestions to the English in India as to the attitude they should adopt towards missionary enterprise, in the pages of the January issue of the *East and West*. He urges the strange and to us quite understandable plea that the national movement and what genuine national life there exists in the country are due in a great measure to Christian ideals and Christian enterprise and he logically concludes that any obstacle which may be placed in the way of Christianity in India would seem to hinder the true progress of the country; and therefore it is the duty of all Englishmen in India, soldiers and civilians, planters, traders and mechanics that they should give up their indifference or possible active hostility to the spread of Christianity which in the writer's words "are signs both of the narrowness of vision and of disloyalty to the Empire." These are astounding statements, which however, the writer does not proceed or care to substantiate. Everybody can accept that the spread of Western education has led to the adoption in some details of life of Christian modes of thought and conduct; but that the standard of current morality among Indians is wholly a creation of Christian teaching is preposterous. In a like spirit the author says. "To deny the improvement which has come over all classes of our Indian fellow subjects, as a result of the influence of Christianity, is in my opinion, a direct contradiction of the facts of the case, and argues wilful blindness on the part of any one who makes that denial." He even goes further and states that Government helps forward missionary enterprise especially on its educational side, because it is convinced that such enterprise is a pioneer of true civilisation. Such wide and dogmatic statements are not appreciated by minds fully imbued with national traditions and ideas, and the whole plea for help towards missions would have been better supported by substantiated arguments, moderate and acceptable.

ANCIENT HINDU CHEMISTRY.

The ancient Indian scientists had made great progress in all the branches of the natural and medical sciences; and until neo-Brahminism relegated the arts to the low castes and made the professions strictly hereditary, India abounded in men who were the equals of Galen and Avicenna, Boyle and Newton, Roger Bacon and Paracelsus. But for the past ten centuries and more, the intellectual portion of the community was withdrawn from the practice of the arts, the spirit of inquiry and inductive observation gradually died out and India bade adieu to experimental and inductive sciences. As an illustration of the ancient glory of the Indian sciences the following are extracted from an article on the subject which appeared in the last number of the *Vedic Magazine*.

In metallurgic skill, the Indians were far advanced and the secret of the tempering of the blades of Damascus was learnt by the Arabs from India. In iron-smelting they had reached a high degree of perfection and known how to combine the required degrees of hardness with sufficient malleability. A passage of the *Atharvanarashya* quotes the existence of gunpowder and its production from a combination of charcoal, sulphur and other materials; though Dr. Ray argues the absence of gunpowder in ancient India from its omission in some of the ancient Hindu works of science. The Hindus had also discovered a method for testing the purity of metals, which closely approximates to that which is nowadays known as 'specific gravity.' The theory of the propagation of sound and that of the metabolic process of the building up of the tissues and cells of the body were also well-known to them. In practical chemistry and pharmacopœia, the *Charaka* and the *Susruta* systems originated about a thousand years ago, still hold their own ground and were far in advance of contemporary European and Arabian systems. India was during the Buddhistic Age studded with dispensaries and hospitals, while the internal administration of mercurial preparations whose invention is generally ascribed to Paracelsus, was long known to the Nagarjunas and Patanjalis. And the Hindus can rightly claim priority in making mercurial remedies a speciality. They could prepare several of the mineral acids and had discovered some of the most important laws of light and some of them had even asserted that air had weight.

Thus we see, that even in examining only a few branches of science, the ancients had made truly remarkable progress, and most possibly they knew much more.

BUDDHISM AND WAR.

The *Buddhist Review* for the 1st quarter of the year contains an interesting dissertation by Mr. William Loftus Hare, on how far the religion of the Buddha is opposed to war, and on the moral and philosophical grounds on which he opposed all war. The ethic of *ahimsa*, non-killing and non-injury, was, even long before Buddhism arose, one of the five preliminary conditions necessary for the attainment of a higher degree of spiritual life, and extended to the dumb creation also. But in Brahminism there operated the doctrine of special duty *Swadharma* appropriate to each man, which excused and even justified a warrior's martial pride and natural delight in bloodshed. The Buddhist *Dharma* was naturally propagated by its *Sangha* separate from the normal society. The Order was anti-military to an extreme degree, so much so that members were not allowed to go and see an army drawn up in battle-array. Buddha proclaimed, 'Let no one who is in the royal service receive ordination'—a friendly compromise with the king, not to disturb or entice his servants into a life which meant the downfall of military power. Though he showed a tolerance for military rulers equal to that which was extended to him by them, he was quite frank in his views on their war-like activities. The extract given below is a description and a judgment on war from the Teacher's point of view.

"Again moved by desire, men arm themselves with sword and buckler, quiver and bow, and each side in battle-array, dash at one another; and the arrows fly and the javelins glance and the swords flash. And they pierce each other with arrows and with javelins and cleave one another's heads with swords; and so come by death and deadly hurt. Or taking sword and buckler, quiver and bow they scale the newly daubed ramparts. . . . And they are pierced by arrow and javelin, and they are mangled in hosts and heads are cloven with swords; and so once more they come by death and deadly hurt. Such is the wretchedness of desire, the sum of suffering which here and now comes to be by reason of desire."

There is not at his teaching any trace of esoteric doctrine about war; it is everywhere implicitly and in many places, explicitly condemned. The fifth in the *Eight-fold Path* excludes the profession of soldiering along with that of the huntsman and the slave-owner. But he foretells that men would not learn the horrors of war for sons and sons of ages to come.

The piety of Asoka and the mastery exerted over Kanishka's mind by the monk Asvagosha expressed themselves in an aversion of militarism, which is so often exemplified by the Indians, Chinese, Siamese and Burmese.

CHRISTIAN FORCES IN JAPAN.

The Rev. Dr. Fulton, head of the Osaka Theological School and associate-editor of a Christian magazine in Japan, contributes a description of the missions engaged in evangelising work in Japan, in an article in the *International Review of Missions*. The chief problems which stand for settlement among the missions are (1) whether there is any unnecessary and wasteful overlapping of the work of missions which might be remedied by a better adjustment; (2) the possibility of arranging a definite agreement between the missions so that each one might assume responsibility for evangelising a certain section of the country, and (3) whether additional forces to enable missionary and Japanese, are necessary, each mission adequately to cover the field allotted to it. Necessity has now arisen, more than ever, to regard the work of the several missions, as in a very real sense, the work of one great body; and that a federation among them should become one in reality. The federation of the churches in Japan has not yet reached completion, nor has the movement been greatly assisted by official co-operation. But general consensus of opinion indicates that there is very little overlapping or waste of forces apparent anywhere. There is possibly some excessive concentration of forces in towns as against the immense unreached rural population, but it is impossible to affirm that even in such large cities the force of Christian workers has reached the point of adequacy. But it should be distinctly understood by missions that the delimitation of spheres does not mean pre-emption, but responsibility for work; and inability or failure to do the work within a reasonable period naturally forfeits the claim to the territory. By implication, the various missions should henceforth plan extensive works, occupying present stations more fully and pushing out into the smaller towns and villages, instead of seeking to occupy new centres with a desire to be represented in all parts of the country. As regards the number of workers, it has been estimated that a little more than double the present evangelistic force would be fully sufficient for all purposes. All these points have been clearly brought out by the evangelistic survey and questionnaire outlined and undertaken by the missionary body in 1911-12. The survey has brought the evangelistic problem to the front and has removed the mistaken impressions which have got abroad regarding the religious condition of Japan.

APPERCEPTION IN EDUCATION.

Mr. Syed Mahomed Hafiz of the Theosophical School of Cawnpore writes in the February number of the *Theosophist* about "Apperception in Education," and follows it up with an exhortation to apply the idea so pregnant with possibilities in the education of youths. From the time of Plato it has been taught that the aim of the teacher ought to be to guide the natural linking of new mental acquisitions to the old accumulations in the right direction. This process is known to the psychologist as 'apperception'—a term introduced by Herbart, the best synonym for which seems to be Lewis' term 'assimilation. "Apperceiving mass stands for the learner's entire psychostatical life—his character, habits and stock of ideas—the sum total of all that is already in his mind; and the incoming ideas and sensations are said to be apperceived by these masses. It is almost obvious that the scope of apperception is as wide as that of consciousness itself. It comprehends the domains of cognition, feeling and volition alike. . . . In fact all processes of perception are processes of apperception; whenever we are said to perceive anything we really apperceive it."

The pedagogical significance of the process of apperception is that the teacher should take great care that such things are not apperceived as do not enlarge the mind, nor deepen the insight; and hence he ought to be careful of the apperceiving link with the knowledge of his pupils.

(1) The teacher is to see that the apperceptive process of the learner should as far as possible be of such a nature as demand the latter's own effort and seeking.

(2) Pupils should be so guided in the discovery of apperceptive relations as to ensure the minimum of disturbance to the apperceiving mass.

(3) The teacher ought to note that he should prepare the learner's mind to receive new experiences under their proper heads; and the great point is to find the head which has to be least altered to take the new experience in.

(4) Teachers should avoid the imparting of instruction that is too recondite or beyond the comprehension of their pupils; i.e., they should see that the instruction is not beyond the mental capacity of the learner and that he has got the proper apperceiving mass.

(5) And lastly the teacher must have capacity to correct and improve upon the children's peculiar deficiencies or defects in particular cases.

THE SPIRIT OF FRANCE.

Mr. Dell draws an instructive comparison between the spirit of France in 1870, and as it is now, in the January issue of *The Contemporary Review*. In 1870, the French were a militarist people, with all the faults of militarism that are now so manifest in Germany; but now they accept war, with courage and resolution indeed, but with great reluctance, as a necessity forced upon them against their will. The legend of France's levity and excitability should be abandoned for ever, and it has become one of the gravest countries in the world.

This remarkable transformation of the national spirit has been coincident with the decline of the hold of Catholicism on the people. The Church was then, as now, the ally of militarism and encouraged Chauvinist and military sentiment. But since the action of Jules Ferry in 1882 in establishing a system of secular education, the schools have been inculcating the spirit of free inquiry. One of the consequences is that the new generation has become more serious, more self-reliant and more capable of initiative; at the same time it has become intensely pacifist and socialism and internationalism have steadily increased. There can be observed a consistent and continuous clerical and militarist reaction in the *bourgeoisie*. The ideals of the French are now humanitarian, rationalistic, and anti-Christian, in the sense of being opposed to Christianity in the only form in which it was known in France. Whether these ideals are fundamentally anti-Christian is another question. But "the fruits of this materialistic humanitarianism have been much more satisfactory than the fruits of what passed for Christianity; the latter were gathered in 1870; the former are being gathered now."

Opposed to all this there is the militarist and clerical party which openly rejoices in war as it will destroy socialism and pacificism and bring about a strong Catholic Government. They do not understand that the present war, besides being a struggle for the vindication of national honour, is also essentially a struggle for the maintenance of the ideals of democracy and internationalism against an aggressive militarism. Hence the French Socialists and Syndicalists in going to the front did not abandon their ideals, but have begun to believe in them more than ever. The war is not one of revenge and redress, as the reactionaries would have it; and they will be sadly disappointed, when they see that the result of the war will be only to intensify the already planted humanitarian ideals.

WESTERN CIVILISATION.

Mr. Pramatha Nath Bose, the author of the 'Epochs of Civilisation' again lays stress on the want of balance between the material and ethical elements in Western civilisation, this time in the New Year issue of the *Hindustan Review*. He says that the moral phenomena, presented by Western society are of a perplexingly contradictory character. "On the one hand, the cessation of barbarous persecution for religious opinion, the humane treatment of criminals, and the expanding network of beneficent organisation for the relief of distress testify to considerable altruistic progress. On the other hand the systematic exploitation and spoliation of the weaker peoples outside Europe, and the barbarity and inhumanity with which they are not unfrequently treated as well as the constant conflict, not unoften conducted on savage methods, between the different sections of the Western community, and the military and predatory spirit which pervades them indicate but little development of the benevolent spirit." The prevailing ideal of Western civilisation is still materialistic, and the large masses of the European nations are still in the third or lowest stage of ethical evolution. Savageries like those perpetrated by the Germans in Belgium, and by the Western powers in China some years ago, show that the time has not yet come for the passage of Western civilisation into the highest stage; and that it has not got the requisite intellectual and ethical preparation for entrance into it. If the forces which make for the mastery of material ideals continue much longer in vitality, Western civilisation is destined to share the fate of those which went before it. Excessive industrialism and commercialism which are generally held to be its strongest features form really its weakest point. The root-cause of the military and predatory proclivities of the European countries is their craze for mechanical invention; and until there is a perceptible diminution in this insensate rage, the military and predatory spirit will not be effectively checked.

"If modern science had not lent its aid so largely to inordinate material progress, and had kept more within the bounds of intellectual culture and ethical development, it would have been an unqualified good. . . . Until modern scientists are more largely actuated by this ancient spirit and cease to send their discoveries to the market place to the extent they do now, there is no hope for the establishment of such equipoise between the ethical and material elements of Western civilisation as would secure its survival."

AN INTERNATIONAL COMITY OF NATIONS.

Writing in the January issue of the *Positivist Review*, Mr. Charles Hooper elaborates the conception of national unity and suggests a scheme for an international comity. He says:

Each nation has a unity or self-hood of its own, analogous in some respects to that of the individual. Its people are linked into one body by territorial, free, social and political relations..... While settled and locally connected territory gives physical stability to the nation, the free, social and political factors combined constitute its spiritual unity. They are analogous to the effective and volitional states of the individual consciousness, while public discussion through Parliament, Platform and Press, as subserving social and political issues, is comparable to the play of intelligence (imaginative or critical) which accompanies and helps to shape the emotions and will of the individual... ..

The modern democratic nation is comparable to the modern civilised individual in that its decisions are ostensibly dictated by reason, or by a full and free consideration of *pros* and *cons* before action is taken. Conflict of opinion thus tends to impede the crude onrush of instinctive activity, whether on the part of the headstrong individual or of the nation in which the multitude is subservient to a strong ruler or a united ruling caste.

Nations being thus conscious units and capable of deliberate and not merely instinctive action, are bound to obey, as much as the individuals of a state are, the dictates of right and international morality. The difficulty comes in, in the fact that each nation claims to be the only competent judge of its own case. Just as the pride of egoism is intensified by entering into a personal quarrel, so the pride of nationality is exalted by such controversy as leads to war, especially if the war be thought to threaten the nation's vital interests. If arbitration should be substituted for egotistic reasoning the probability of justice being done in each case of dispute would approach to a certainty. If ever the constitutionally governed nations should agree to submit their future disputes to an International Tribunal, an advisory body will be deemed necessary to assist the Tribunal in the work of discussion and sifting of the international problems. The advisory body would propose and provisionally pass extensions and amendments of international law, which would become binding only on such nations as individually agreed to them. The Tribunal would have the purely judicial work of interpreting finally existing laws and treaties. And what may be called binding international legislation would arise through the individual nations ratifying the recommendations of the advisory council. Thus international comity would be realised and a larger unit than the nation would be created.

A FORGOTTEN SIEGE OF BOMBAY.

Mr. Francis Skrine, the noted authority on Indian History contributes a very interesting story about a forgotten siege of Bombay to the February issue of the *East and West*. The story is told in an old book 'History of the East Indies' by a Captain Cone who was a typical sea-dog of the seventeenth century, combining trading with piracy in the Eastern waters. It was Sir Josiah Child, the masterful Chairman of the East India Company, and the first Englishman who grasped the necessity of placing British power in India on a basis of territorial sovereignty, that was the cause of the catastrophe that befell infant Bombay. His brother John Child, acting under instructions from Sir Josiah raised Bombay to the rank of a Presidency, feeling that an insular position was better fitted to become the nucleus of an independent realm, than Surat in which the English were directly confronted with the Moghul Governor. John Child deliberately picked a quarrel with the Moghul power and moreover attempted in a mean manner to ruin the Company's native creditors by involving them in the war. He sent to the Moghul Governor a remonstrance couched in the most insolent terms and demanding reparation for imaginary wrongs and captured an Abyssinian fleet of four vessels which were carrying a cargo of provisions to the Imperial armies. Sidi Yakub, the Moghul admiral remonstrated in civil language against this outrageous deed and getting only an impertinent reply from Child, sent an ultimatum and rapidly followed it up by sending 20,000 troops to besiege Bombay (1687).

Mazagaon fort was evacuated promptly by the English, and the castle soon afterwards fell. It was only after a disgraceful submission of the English factors before Aurangzeb himself in 1690, that he consented to renew their *firman* and license to trade. The death of John Child in the meantime facilitated matters greatly and Sidi Yakub evacuated the Island. Even after this severe lesson, Sir Josiah Child would not learn moderation and the necessity of submission and instructed his Bombay agent Vaux to obey *his* orders saying that the 'Laws of England were a heap of nonsense compiled by ignorant country-gentlemen who hardly knew how to make laws for the good government of their own families, much less for the regulating of companies and foreign commerce.' Mr. Skrine concludes that this forgotten episode should warn the rulers that no rule can long survive which is not founded on the bed-rock of justice.

CHRISTIANITY TO PRIMITIVE PEOPLES.

An interesting psychological analysis of the mind of the Toradja Tribes of the Central Celebes is presented to us in the pages of the January number of the *International Review of Missions* by the Rev. A. C. Kruyt, a Dutch missionary in the Celebes, and a clever student of the animistic tribes of that region. The difficulties and hindrances which stand in the way of the missionaries may, to a large extent be dispelled by a knowledge of the thought world of the Toradja, their daily and religious life and those aspects of the Gospel which may appeal to their rude minds. The missionaries have to stand outside their social pale; and since members are not allowed to have separate opinions conversion is impossible except with the consent of the chiefs and of the whole community. Some particular features of their society, like polygamy and slavery prove peculiarly difficult obstacles to overcome. Annual raids against enemy-tribes based on traditional feuds and prejudices rebounded on the Christian preaching of universal love. In some of these matters, it is only governmental regulations and prohibitions that can do anything to break down the mass of heathenism.

The methods of approaching the Toradja are various, but have to be handled carefully. Medical treatment was a sure way of winning over their hearts, while attendance at their festivals was also effective. The attempt to open schools at first proved a failure and as a rule, the people are inattentive and indifferent when spoken to on religious matters. When telling them Bible stories and parables, view for further explanation should be avoided as far as possible; and as we express objections often rendering the inmost thought of our hearers, we gain the reputation of being able to read their souls. But many points of contact are discovered in their religious habits as well as in their social relationships. The Toradjas perceive that there is the Great Lord of Heaven who is above all things created and also above all Gods; and they also see their own shortcomings before the Lord of Heaven and this consciousness of guilt is a great point gained. The serious character of Christian marriage ceremonies and funerals never fails to impress them and above all the Catholicity of Christianity strongly appeals to them; and the true love which is manifested in every gospel address most impresses them who are so used to selfishness.

MAHOMEDANISM IN THE CAPE COLONY.

The remarkable fact that more converts among blacks of every description are made from Paganism to the Moslem religion than to Christianity and that many among even the pure whites are turning Moslems every year is brought out in two vigorous articles in the January issue of the *Moslem World*. Colebrook testified as early as 1812 to the spread of Mahomedanism among the slaves and coloured peoples of the Cape and now nearly a third of the population of Cape Town follows the faith of the Prophet. The opening up of steam connections with Zanzibar and the consequent increase in the convenience of a *Haj*, the coming of Indian Mahomedans and religious deputations from India—these form strong bonds and act as forces of propaganda. One of the consequences of the present situation is to separate the Moslems much more definitely from the coloured population in dress, customs and spirit and to connect them more closely with their co-religionists in Asia, Europe and Egypt. They are also getting complete hold of certain trades, such as tailoring, building, fruit and vegetable selling etc. Though the influence of the new forces does not always stand for enlightenment, and countenances, indirectly at least, witchcraft and unmentionable immorality, it will be positively increased when the Cape to Cairo Railway is established.

The writer laments that Christians both coloured and white are content in their lukewarmness and keep inert, while Mahomedanism pursues its aggressive proselytism by fair means and foul. Many unsuspecting Christians fall victims to the magic of Malay sorcery and witchcraft, and ashamed to allow their weaknesses to become public property, enter the fold of Moslems, hoping to avert their disgrace thus. There are 3 colleges for Mussulman students in Cape Town itself, and of mosques as many as forty. Their influence was by no means hemmed in, but was rather a cancer in the midst of the neighbouring Christian congregations. The danger is immensely graver than is ever realised and the work of combating the insidious forces needs urgent and whole-hearted support, the more so as English money and English patrons are not wanting for the task of Moslem proselytism.

VILLAGE COMMUNITIES IN INDIA AND RUSSIA.

Ever since 1872 when the Rev. J. Long published his paper on "Village Communities in India and Russia" in the transaction of the Bengal Social Science Association, the comparative study of Indian and Russian villages has excited increasing interest. And Babu Bisvesvar Chatterjee contributes a lucid essay on the subject which appears in the February issue of the *Modern Review*. There are essentially two types of villages in India, the ryotwari village and the landlord one. The theory that the former is the decayed form of the latter is controverted by the prevalence of the ryotwari type over the whole of the Deccan which is the seat of Dravidian civilisation, by the absence of any evidence of pre-Aryan or other primeval holding in common in it, by the mention of the ryotwari type alone in the laws of Manu, and by the possibility of proving how the joint village may have grown up over an older ryotwari one. In the individual village, the cultivators "do not claim to be the joint holders of a large area, nor do their holdings represent in any sense shares of what is in itself a whole which belongs to them all." In the joint type the most important feature is that there is "an individual or a family (or a group of ancestrally connected families) which has the claim to be superior to other cultivating land-holders and in fact to be the owner or landlord of the entire area within the ring-fence of the village boundary." The function of sharing in the latter type is very important and is worked on various principles—family share system, sharing by ploughs, shares in water or in wells, and recognition of *defacto* holdings alone. In the ryotwari area, the headman *patel* or *Deshmukh* is a very important person, while the *chaukidar* and the judicial *panchayat* are other characteristic features.

Panchayat or arbitration by a village jury of five or more persons has been praised by Sir Thomas Munro who declared that "the native who has a good cause always applies for a *panchayat*." In the Sikh Empire and the Khalsa army, the *panchayat* held a very prominent place; while all civil disputes in Maharashtra were decided by its awards. It should be the aim of Government to reunify all these old and half-dead institutions and not merely clothe them with a semblance of authority, nor destroy their independence by assimilating their officials and functions into Government service.

The Russian village community is a working

company in which the field and forest belong to all the partners in equal shares, but in which there is no hereditary chief. Though there is joint village possession, yet individual cultivation and individual profit are the rule. The bond of union is the soil and the social unit is the house or family. Once in three years all individual claims fall in, all holdings cease and a fresh division of the land is made. The principle of association passes beyond the village limits and extends into the Canton, *Volost*, *Golova* and so reaches to the *Zemstvo* or provincial assembly composed of delegates from the lesser units. The landlord interest is strong in the higher, and the peasant interest in the lower bodies.

In spite of short-comings the Russian rural unit has kept alive the spirit of democracy in the masses, and a sympathetic government may confer on us all these and possibly more substantial benefits.

MOST IMPORTANT LESSON OF THE WAR.

Mr. Harold Cox, the editor of the *Edinburgh Review* writing on *Militarisms Abroad and at Home*, says:—

"The present war has furnished a magnificent demonstration of the value of our voluntary system, even from a purely military point of view.

* * * * *

"In Germany there has never been a general and successful revolution of the people against their oppressors, like the revolution in England against the Bourbons. The conception of individual liberty never seems to have taken hold of the German people as it has of the other peoples of Western Europe. It is not surprising that the German nation should be infected with the worst form of militarisms, the mere desire to dominate."

THE PROBLEM OF NATIONALITY.

Mr. W. Alison Phillips, writing on "The Problem of Nationality," in the *Edinburgh Review* for January, insists that "if the peace secured is to be more than an armed truce, a change must come over the spirit of the nations themselves. The peoples of European culture must be taught that it is no true patriotism to set up their own particular national idea as a norm for all the world; and that it is crime against humanity to attempt to propagate that idea by any other force than example. Further they have to learn that the separate interests which from the basis of national groups must not be permitted to outweigh the common interests which unite these groups in the great commonwealth of nations."

THE SLAVO-PHILE CREED.

Professor Vinogradoff of Oxford writing in the January issue of the *Hibbert Journal* describes the so-called Slavophiles of Russia who are a characteristic centre of Russian thought and who have played an important part in the formation of Russian nationalist ideals. The whole movement originated in Moscow Society and was primarily connected with the University, and one of its leaders Ivan Kireievsky has the credit of establishing the general philosophical basis of the whole school; as his brother Peter worked out the conception of Russian national history. Kireievsky mused his whole life on the awkward position of Russia with regard to the Western world. He mourned that the cultured classes were translating, imitating and studying foreign literatures, following them with their slightest movement, acquiring other people's ideas and systems. The result was that the cultured classes were actually severed from the home sources of Russian civilisation and hence disabled for all constructive purposes. He was convinced that "between our literary culture and the cardinal elements of our mental life as they were developed in our ancient history and are preserved even now among our so-called uneducated people, there is a flagrant contradiction". This contradiction is produced not by a difference in degree, but by a difference in kind. Those elements of intellectual, social and religious life which created ancient Russia and are now forming the only property of her popular life have remained untouched by and separated from the progress of spiritual activity.

Kireievsky then proceeds to explain that the idea of introducing principles of European civilisation in the place of the elements of Russian national culture, destroys itself, because the general development of European civilisation is not based on continuous and organic principles. European economic ideas are based on complete individual egotism, legal ideas are marked by a strict formalism and disregard for equity, and morality is affected perniciously by a narrow standard of honour. And these imperfections are particularly apparent when we look to the ultimate results of European culture.

The present state of Russia is thus a glaring contradiction between its historical legacies and its modern aspirations; but it possesses in the simple faith of the people the very element which has been found wanting in the West; and hence the intelligent consciousness of her leaders

must be directed towards a development of the fundamental religious ideas round which all the moral and juridical conceptions of the nation are centred. The Western ideas are to be assimilated and appropriated, but they are subsidiary and the true end should be the development of popular ideals.

Kireievsky and other Slavophile leaders believe that the character of a nation settles gradually into a frame, as solid and unchanging as the limbs of a grown-up man; and they turn from logic to psychology in order to account for the historical national life. They represent the reaction against rationalistic enlightenment and the Romantic School against the eighteenth-century thought. Their doctrines are the most complete expression of the Romantic tendency in European thought; and some of their most familiar strains are found in Tolstoy and Dostoyevsky, the enthusiasts of the village-community, present day nationalists and adherents of mystic revival of orthodoxy.

CHRISTIAN AND BUDDHIST IDEALS.

Mr. Ballard discusses in the *East and West* in a comparative way, the merits of the two sets of ideals which Christ and the Buddha have set forth. Both teach purity of morals, control of the passions, and a general philanthropy towards one's neighbours, but this last virtue, they teach from different motives—Christianity from that of love, and Buddhism from the motive of acquiring merit for one's personal advantage in a future world. The former are cursed and the latter are exquisitely welcomed. The Christian ideal is a life, well-balanced between contemplation and worship on the one hand, and active benevolence on the other. But the Buddhist ideal is not at all this. It encourages 'acts of benevolence' for those who cannot rise higher, but to those who wish to follow the way of perfection it preaches seclusion and totally abstemious contemplation. Christian hermits and Christian contemplative monks and nuns have practised this form of life, in spite of,—not in consequence of—their Master's commands. "Weep with them that weep, and rejoice with them that rejoice," says St. Paul, and it is certain that a hermit or a contemplative monk does neither; and the Church, from the time of the Reformation has grasped a higher ideal than that suggested by the life of a hermit. And the writer naively concludes that the violence shown to Christian missions, especially to those in Buddhist countries proceeds out of this conflict of ideals and should be minimised as far as possible,

QUESTIONS OF IMPORTANCE

THE GRIEVANCES OF INDIANS IN CANADA.

The following is the full text of a representation made by the President of the United Provinces Congress Committee, Allahabad, to the Secretary to the Government of India, the Department of Commerce and Industry, Delhi :—

The question of the status of Indians within the Empire, brought into prominence by the repressive policy pursued by South Africa against her Indian settlers, has been seriously agitating the public mind for a long time. It principally concerns the colonies of Canada, Australia and South Africa. The passing of the Indian Relief Act during the last session of the South African Parliament, and the promises made by her statesmen of a more considerate administration of the laws affecting Indians have undoubtedly allayed the bitterness that was aroused in this country last winter, and enabled her Indian residents to bring the campaign of passive resistance, on which they were forced to enter, to an honourable close, but my committee submits that the solution arrived at there cannot be accepted by India as the last word of Imperial statesmanship on the question of the immigration of Indians within the Empire. The situation is even less satisfactory in Australia. In South Africa the understanding is that the immigration laws will be so worked as to allow a few Indians to enter the colony and settle there every year, but in Australia they can be and are enforced in such a way as to effectually exclude all Indian immigrants. But although Indians are nowhere accorded the rights that are due to them as British citizens, the Indian problem is particularly acute at present in Canada, and it is to that chiefly that my committee would invite the earnest attention of the Government of India, though the measures it proposes for dealing with it would apply equally to all parts of the British Empire where the problem may exist. The country is deeply grateful to His Excellency the Viceroy for his courageous and statesmanlike attitude on this question as explained in his speech in Council on the 8th September last, and for the opportunity he has given us of placing the mature views of the Indian public before the Government of India for their sympathetic consideration.

The grievances of the Indians residing in Canada were placed before the Government of India by their delegates at the beginning of the current year and are otherwise well-known to it; nevertheless, it would be better to summarise the main facts before indicating the policy which should be followed in regard to Indian emigration. Indian immigration into Canada began in 1905, and in the course of a year, about 6,000 Indians landed on Canadian soil. Their number at present, however, is about 4,500. They live almost entirely in the province of British Columbia and all of them are males with the exception of three women who have been allowed to enter as an act of grace. Ninety per cent. of them are Sikhs, many of whom are retired soldiers. Their occupations are manual labour and agriculture, and by their sobriety and industry they have come to own property worth about 2½ crores in less than a decade.

They were allowed to live in peace till 1907. In 1908 Mr. Mackenzie King, Deputy Minister of Labour, was deputed to confer with the authorities in England regarding the measures that should be adopted to restrict the entry of certain classes of immigrants, "in particular, British East Indians." Two reasons were given for the desire to put a stop to Indian immigration. The first was that, "accustomed as many of them are to the conditions of a tropical climate, . . . their inability to readily adapt themselves to surroundings entirely different could not do other than entail . . . privation and suffering." This fear the economic prosperity of the Canadian Indian has proved to be baseless. The second was a regard for the welfare of the white working man. "It was recognised too," says Mr. King in his report, "that the competition of this class of labour, though not likely to prove effective, if left to itself, might none the less, were the numbers to become considerable (as conceivably could happen were self-interest on the part of individuals to be allowed to override considerations of humanity and national well-being and the importation of this class of labour under contract permitted), occasion considerable unrest among working men whose standard of comfort is of a higher order." But later on in the same report Mr. King admits that this danger is purely

imaginary, as under the Indian Emigration Act indentured labour can be sent only to such countries as are notified for that purpose by the Governor-General of India in Council, and adds, "It will, therefore, be seen, that of itself the Indian Emigration Act solves the problem, so far as it relates to the importation of contract labour from India to Canada and this is the one class to be feared, since without some agreement to labour it is hardly to be expected that the number of immigrants will be large." As regards the free Indian settler, he cannot be accused of cheapening labour. The Indian labourer has not disorganised the labour market by lowering wages. On the contrary, he demands as high wages as his European competitor.

The opposition to the Indian settler, nevertheless, continued to grow. At first a scheme was proposed which opened to him alluring prospects in British Honduras, but which would have reduced him to the position of an indentured labourer. And when the Indians were not taken in by the scheme, two orders of the Privy Council were promulgated on the 9th May, 1910, which, in theory, affected all Asiatics, but which are in reality aimed against Indians only, for the rights of the Chinese and Japanese are safeguarded by the treaties entered into with their respective governments. These orders prohibited the landing of all immigrants who reach Canada "otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which they are natives or citizens, and upon through tickets purchased in that country or purchased or prepaid in Canada," and the entry of an Asiatic immigrant "unless in actual and personal possession in his or her own right of 200 dollars." Thus even if an Indian manages to purchase a through ticket, which is practically impossible as there is no direct passenger service between India and Canada, he cannot enter the colony unless he has 200 dollars on his person. As these restrictions apply not only to those who go there in search of a livelihood, but also to the wives and children of domiciled Indians, they render it impossible for the latter to send for their families from India. The intention may be gathered from the obvious object which is to force them to leave Canada, and considering that their number has fallen from 6,000 to 4,500 it seems that the object has been partially gained. It may be said that Canada, so far from being hostile to Indians as such, has freely used its powers to reject undesirable British immigrants, and that between 1901-02 and 1912-13, 1,080 Britishers were sent away as compared with 368 Indians,

who were not allowed to land. But during the same period about a million men from the United Kingdom settled there, while practically speaking not a single Indian has been allowed to enter Canada since it first embarked on the policy of racial exclusion.

It is painful to compare the stringency of the laws against Indians with the consideration shown to the Chinese and Japanese who somehow do not produce any of the evils that are supposed to flow from oriental immigration. No Indian may enter Canada, but four hundred Japanese are admitted annually on showing that they possess 50 dollars each in specie or negotiable securities, while the Chinese can gain admission in unlimited numbers on payment of a tax of 500 dollars per head. Again, after complying with the requirements of the law they can easily obtain naturalisation certificates, but strange to say, no Indian has yet been able to do so. Further, they possess the right, equally with European immigrants, of taking their wives, children and other relations with them, but in the case of Indians only three women have so far been allowed to enter and that too as an act of grace. The South African Government refused to recognise Indian marriages celebrated in accordance with the religious tenets of the contracting parties because Hinduism and Mahomedanism permit polygamy, but in Canada the Chinaman may have several wives and may live in polygamous relations with all of them without any protest on the part of the white inhabitants, while the Indian who is a "monogamist by tradition" is not permitted to ask his wife and children to come near him. The result is that the Japanese and Chinese, who are the subjects of a foreign Government, are admitted on easy terms, while Indians who own allegiance to the same King-Emperor are, in practice, entirely excluded. It is a cruel irony of fate that British citizenship should be a disqualification in Canada.

A deputation waited on the Minister of the Interior on behalf of the Indians in 1911 to bring to his notice the serious disabilities under which they laboured. The Minister promised that their representation regarding the admission of their wives "shall be immediately attended to, and the other parts also settled in a just and straightforward manner." But so far nothing has been done to redeem this pledge, nor is there any sign of any action in the direction promised being taken in the near future.

Having proved unsuccessful in securing an amelioration of the condition of their brethren in Canada by their own unaided efforts, Indians

naturally turn to the Government of their country for help at this juncture. They regard it not as a mere channel of communication between India and England, but as their own Government which is identified with their interests, which will be their mouthpiece, and which, as His Excellency the Viceroy was pleased to observe in his speech in Council on the 8th September, will put the good of India, of which her material welfare is only a part, above all other considerations in framing its policies. They gratefully acknowledge the support they have received from the Indian Government in the past in their efforts to secure their just rights in the colonies. The noble advocacy by Lord Hardinge's Government of the cause of Indians in South Africa and His Excellency's intervention to prevent the use of armed force against the unfortunate passengers of the *Komagata Maru* are still fresh in their minds, and they have the fullest confidence that they can count upon the same unwavering support in future.

Whatever rules may guide one state in its dealings with another, the basis of rights within an Empire can only be loyalty and service to that Empire. The Indians in Canada are not physically unfit nor has their moral character yet been impugned by their critics, which, in view of the unnatural circumstances under which they have to pass their lives, reflects the greatest credit on them. There is no likelihood of a sudden and large influx of Indians into that colony and no economic dangers have followed in their train. On the contrary, they have proved themselves thoroughly loyal and industrious citizens, capable of readily adapting themselves to their new surroundings and conforming to the standards of the land of their adoption. But while Indians have everywhere proved themselves useful citizens of the Empire in a civic capacity, they have at the same time not failed to participate in its military defence. Of the services thus rendered by them in India and abroad it is needless to speak at the present moment when they are shedding their blood for the Empire in distant lands and among strange peoples. The majority of the Indians in Canada are drawn from a class which provides the finest soldiers to the Indian army, and every true well-wisher of the Empire should consider it his duty to deal with them in such a manner as to strengthen and not weaken the ties that bind them to it.

There is a feeling among Indians that the Colonies have been influenced in their conduct towards Indians by the idea that the Government of India, being subordinate to the Government of

England, has no power to protect the interest of Indians and to obtain for them a recognition of their just rights as fellow-citizens of the common Empire. India is a dependency whose affairs must be managed in accordance with the wishes of Great Britain, and, until lately the Indian public was ignorant of the humiliations Indians were subjected to outside their country. The Government of India was therefore unable to secure a proper hearing for its representations. The Colonies, on the other hand, are self-governing units with a strong and well-developed public opinion behind them, and consequently with the freedom to enact such laws as that public opinion demands and the power to make their voice effectively heard in the mother country. And conscious of this advantage and the great influence they wield thereby, in the counsels of the Empire, they have until very recently, steadfastly ignored the wishes and sentiments of the Government of India. But Indian public opinion has in the meantime been growing, and, happily for India, her noble Viceroy, Lord Hardinge, has read the signs of the times aright and recognized the necessity of pressing for a just solution.

The baleful results of the short-sighted policy pursued by the Colonies are not confined to the Empire but extend far beyond its limits. Encouraged by the attitude of the colonies, other countries, for instance, Portuguese East Africa and the United States of America, are refusing admission to Indians and in some cases imposing humiliating restrictions on them. Formerly England might have protested against such legislation, but, having passively permitted racial discrimination in her own colonies, she cannot now object to it in other countries. Till a few years back Indians were the outcasts of the Empire, to-day they are the outcasts of the world.

Immediate relief can and should be given to the Canadian Indians by permitting their wives and children to join them, but the only true and just solution of the larger question involved would be to allow that all fellow-subjects who own allegiance to the King-Emperor should have the fullest freedom to establish themselves in any part of the Empire. This right is at present enjoyed by European subjects alone, and all that is necessary is that it should be extended to Indians also.

Lord Hardinge, while personally sympathizing with this view, saw no chance of its being accepted by the Colonists. But, in view of the altered circumstances in which we find ourselves now, my committee ventures to hope that such a proposal

will meet with a better reception at the hands of the Colonies. Indian and Colonial troops are now engaged in fighting a common enemy in defence of a common cause, and comradeship on the battle-field and the sense of dangers shared together will, it is hoped, inspire the Colonies with a higher feeling and a juster appreciation of the qualities of their fellow-subjects. Colonial as well as English statesmen, pondering over the significance of the unique outburst of loyalty evoked in India by the war and the sacrifices willingly incurred to bring it to a successful issue, would, we believe, be willing to concede to her a position worthy of her dignity and thus to utilize the existing enthusiasm, which is pregnant with immense possibilities for the future, for the good of the Empire. But if equality cannot be secured for Indians on the basis of equal rights, it is possible at least on the basis of common disabilities. If Indians are received on a footing of inferiority in the Colonies the Government of India should impose corresponding restrictions and disabilities on Colonial immigrants into the country. They should, for instance, be subjected to the same tests as Indian immigrants into the colonies, and declared ineligible for employment in the public

services or in private concerns, and debarred from owning land in India. There are several other ways of securing the object in view, which is to vindicate the self-respect of India, and the Government of India should not hesitate to use any or all of the means to the desired end.

It is no pleasure to my committee to propose the curtailment of the freedom of any citizen of the British Empire, but it is reluctantly driven to that alternative as a result of past experience. It is not asking for the reciprocal imposition of disabilities on sentimental grounds only. Such a course will undoubtedly give legitimate satisfaction to Indian sentiment, but, above all other things, it will dispel the false and mischievous notion that the Government of India is powerless to protect the interests of the inhabitants of this country. It will have a great moral effect within and without the Empire, and will in its results prove a powerful lever in raising the ideal of Imperial Citizenship. It will allay discontent in India and can be a lasting solution of the vexed question of Indian emigration. And it is in the full confidence that it will serve the best interests of the Empire that my committee would recommend the adoption of such a course by the Government of India.

UTTERANCES OF THE DAY

NOTABLE PRONOUNCEMENTS ON THE WAR.

THE HON. SIR BENJAMIN ROBERTSON.

Speaking at a durbar held recently at Raipur the Hon. Sir Benjamin Robertson, Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces and Berar, said:—

"The war is certain to be a long and exhausting one, enormous numbers of men are in the field on either side, and the battle front covers a great part of Europe. We must, therefore, all be prepared to wait before we see the end of our task accomplished, for in this war we cannot accept a peace until the power of militarism is finally broken. Here, in India, happily far removed as we are from the scene of strife, we may at times hardly appreciate to the full, the great sacrifices which the war is imposing upon the people of Great Britain. True, India has sent her sons to the front, she has suffered in trade and there are minor inconveniences to be borne. Let there be no repining and let us do what we can to help the men who are fighting for their country. Should there be need for further aid, I am sure that all of you will show the same spirit of willingness to help in the good cause."

THE HON. MR. CLAUDE HILL.

The Hon'ble Mr. Claude Hill delivered recently an interesting lecture at the Fergusson College, Poona, on "Some General Considerations Suggested by the Great War" going on at present in Europe in which practically the whole British Empire is engaged and concluded it as follows:—

"The moral which the nations would have to draw from the appalling events of 1914-15 would be that it is not sufficient for a nation to take the unction to its soul that its aims and ideals are directed aright, and then to sit down and fold its arms and appeal for sympathy. Unless a nation or individual is prepared to make a sacrifice for the principles or the ideals which it professes or aspires to, it cannot take to itself the credit of them or expect that the world will respect it. We and the French are to-day wading through blood to a realization of this, and it would be to the credit of Germany that the lesson would have been learnt. There has been too much self-congratulation and too much luxury and selfishness."

MR. S. SRINIVASA AIYANGAR, B.A., B.L.*

It may not be always easy for us, far away from the sights and sounds of war, to realise the terrible loss of lives, and the suffering of women and children in homes nearer the scene of warfare. Our hearts must go out to the great people who are so splendidly fighting for the cause of humanity. We must all realise that England is fighting as much in the true interests of India as for any other part of the British Empire; for India's fate will be decided on the battlefields of Europe. We must also feel deeply for the Punjab and those parts of Northern India whence our own Indian brethren have gone to fight for a cause common to the whole Empire. More than our magnificent war funds, our hospital ships and all other material aid, may our prayerful sympathy with England and France as the champions of a civilisation which has transformed India, contribute to the formation of a finer humanity that must emerge from this supreme strife. We are bound up with the British Empire. And 'it may be that India is destined to occupy ere long, such a place in the Empire and in the world as to be able to spread the influence of her ancient civilisation over the whole world and to soften the rampant militarism of the West.

To us Indians, England stands for liberty and efficiency; for the ancient and hallowed ideal of liberty and consistent with it only, for efficiency; Germany stands for efficiency only, the efficiency of an extreme despotism which involves the sacrifice of all the finer flowers of the heart and the intellect of mankind at the soul-less mechanical altar of a State abstraction. Again, England stands for a peaceful and commercial Empire comprising different civilisations and different communities; Germany stands for the last assertion of a naked racial ideal charged with destruction and hate and bound to perish by its own hand. As I read the history of the world, the peaceful and strenuous peoples have eventually triumphed over the aggressively military peoples. That the vigour and chivalry of the British race still remain undimmed has been made manifest by their courageous resolve to enter on this unparalleled war of principle and honour even before they had a large army on the continental scale; and the new British Army that has been formed after the War began within the last six months shows that the noble fire which has so markedly influenced the civilisation of the world from the sixteenth century is unquenchable.

* From the Presidential Address to the Chittoor Conference.

SIR CHARLES BAYLEY ON THE WAR.

In his speech at the opening of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council at Bankipore on the 19th January Sir Charles Bayley said:

The events of the last five and-a-half months have shown more clearly than anything else could have done that the policy which Germany has adopted at such frightful cost not only to the nations opposed to her and to the cause of civilisation, but to her original ally, and I regret to say, to the ally, once united to us by the friendliest feelings, whom she has forced to espouse her cause, has been based on an extraordinary series of almost inconceivable political mistakes.

To mention only a few of these, Germany believed that Russia would not fight to save the existence of Serbia; she believed that the brave Belgian people would save their national life at the cost of all that made that life worth living; she believed that Great Britain would be deaf to the voice of friendship in the case of France, and to that of honour in the case of Belgium. The origin of the first two of these mistakes it is unnecessary to discuss, but about the third there can be no doubt whatever. Germany unquestionably relied to some extent on England's well-known love of peace but she relied yet more on what she fondly imagined to be disruptive tendencies in the British Empire. Ireland, she thought would not help her partner in the United Kingdom, the Colonies would raise no hand in defence of their mother-country, India, seething with sedition and discontent, would seize the opportunity to throw off her allegiance to the Crown. She doubtless also hoped, later on, that the loyalty of Indian Mahomedans would be blind to the fact that Turkey was in no sense fighting for the cause of Islam.

All these delusions have been ruthlessly dispelled and in the case of none of them has the awakening been ruder than in that of India. No sooner was war declared than all classes of His Majesty's Indian subjects loudly proclaimed their loyalty and offered their services, and no step taken by His Majesty's Government has been more universally welcomed than the decision to employ India's gallant troops in the cause of the great Empire to which India is proud to belong. Loyal meetings were held in every centre, prayers for victory were offered in every temple and in every mosque. Rich and poor alike have contributed generously to the various funds which have been inaugurated for the relief of sufferers from the war.

MR. YUSUF ALI, I.C.S.

In the course of a recent speech at the East India Association Mr. Yusuf Ali, I. C. S. (*Rtd.*) said :—

The rally of India round the flag has been so splendid, so spontaneous and so unanimous, that it is well both for India and England to realize the full meaning of this epoch-making achievement. * * *

India's rally—and indeed the rally of the whole Empire—is of that nature. Australia and Canada, New Zealand and South Africa, and many a minor Britain lapped on the rocking waves—all tell the same tale. The treachery of Maritz only shows up in relief the loyalty of the Afrikander, as the haste and passion of the *Komagata Maru* Sikhs in Calcutta give point to the loyal outpourings of the Khalsa in meeting assembled in the Golden Temple in Amritsar. Count not the value of their golden hearts merely by what they send, either in men or money. Measure it not only by their glowing words, or even by their deeds of passionate patriotism. Pierce the veil ; see the heart within—a surging, tumultuous current of vigorous red blood flows through their throbbing arteries, and Britannia is indeed proud to be the mother of a brood so quickly afire in a glorious cause, so firm in their resolve to give to their mother of their fairest, noblest and strongest.

What does the rally mean for India ? I recall * * * the words of a prophet of England written a century ago—to Wordsworth's high rejection of a "lore of nicely calculated less or more." Leave to politics and law the theory of compensations and considerations. They are no doubt important in everyday life. But bring not the high emotions of a great crisis to a lower plane by talking about these when the heart beats to a nobler purpose, and echoes by its throbs the sentiments of a united Empire. Let a simple Indian soldier speak for himself : "The Empire in self-defence has appealed to all its subjects. If it had been threatened in India, British soldiers would have gone there ; but as it is threatened in Europe, we have come here." And then he added, converting into a glorious sentiment new to India an obvious formula embodied in his instructions in a wholly matter of fact sense : "We are indeed Indians, but also Britishers."

What does the rally mean for England ? Let there be no unctuous phrases of self-congratulation or self-satisfaction. Justice never produced popular waves of emotion. Efficiency never stirred men's blood or gave a generous glow to sentiment and pride. These things are well in the balancing of accounts, in the reckoning of the

debtor and creditor, sides of a ledger. But now is the time for a warm-hearted shake of the hand. This is the hour when men speak little, but what little they say, smacks of high enterprise. Shall we be comrades in arms, and generously recognize each other's good qualities ?

That is the key in which Lord Crewe spoke. As Secretary of State for India, he knows what he is saying in the generous tribute which he pays to Indian troops ; "Highspuled men of first-rate training and representing an ancient civilization." No less generous is Lord Curzon, who expresses for this country the feelings of pride in India's solidarity and India's passionate response. But most heart-stirring of all is the appeal of one who knows intimately every part of his Empire as no Sovereign before him knew it—one whose *chahra-i-mubārak* was seen with pride and glory by millions of men in Bombay, Delhi, and Calcutta, less than three short years ago. "The noble traditions of courage and chivalry of my Indian Army, whose honour and fame are in your hands"—what Indian soldier would not be fired by such eulogy ? What Indian civilian would not feel a thrill of emotion at such stimulating words ? Again : "I look to all my Indian soldiers to uphold the *izzat* of the British *Raj* against an aggressive and relentless enemy." The King-Emperor calls. India salutes and falls in, ready to die for country, Padishah, flag and Empire.

The apostles of mailed fists and rattling sabres, the preachers of the gospel of blood and fire, make light of the human factor in history, or in the human factor subordinate the spiritual to the material. But it is this higher side of the human factor which will govern every struggle, and be the final arbiter among men and nations. It is this factor that is forging a link between India and England stronger than chains of administrative steel—more reliable than armed battalions. And what made it such a living dominant force ? The personality of India's gracious Sovereign, who resolved, with his noble Consort, to enthrone himself in the heart of India in waking a new life and force from the echoes of historic Delhi.

The Sovereign speaking to his people, the Sovereign in the midst of his people, the Sovereign smiling and trusting when Prudence spoke of danger and wise heads appealed to precedents, the Sovereign who gave dignity to splendour by the magnificent simplicity of his own daily life, and rescued Court functions from their terrors by kindly words, gracious smiles, and quiet acts of practical charity—this was the influence which

captivated India, and is in itself sufficient to awaken the imagination of its nobility and its people. The war has provided a practical outlet. Let us take the feeling at its flood, and count it among the richest gains of the Imperial ferment.

At this stage let us not speak of India's progress in the field. The deeds of India's soldiers will speak for themselves. They have already won praise by their splendid equipment, their fine physique, their manly bearing and their eagerness to join issue with the enemy. They have been baptized in the fire of German guns. Their cavalry have shown their steadiness in support of the magnificent staunchness of the Allied Forces, French, English and Belgian. Their mountain scouts, the "jolly little Gurkhas," have given a foretaste of the daring with which the lonely watches of the night can be invaded and the enemy's stores of ammunition can be destroyed. When the time comes for dash and chase, they will not be laggards in the field.

* * * * *

Fight, ye glorious soldiers, Gurkha or Sikh, Moslem, Rajput or Brahman! Fight for the name of India, and make it glorious with your blood! Great are your privileges. You have comrades in the British Army whose fellowship and lead are a priceless possession to you. They have fought and conquered in these very fields for centuries. They are as staunch and steady against the crushing weight of numbers as they are bold and enterprising in the hour of dash and gallantry. They have something of your own mystic sentiment and spirituality, however different may be their manner of showing it. Their chivalry in the most trying turns of fortune will open your eyes to those knightly qualities which your ancestors enshrined in their legends. In the long battle line of which you will form part will be the renowned soldiers of France and the heroic army of Belgium, who know not despair and are never more courageous than when facing overwhelming odds. You have a very high example to emulate, and we know you will be worthy of it.

Think of their devastated fields, their ruined industries, their desecrated homes, their slaughtered children and kinsmen. Such dangers may have seemed remote from your homes but what keeps your homes together? The flag which protects you is threatened. The foe

is relentless, and the object of his hate and envy is nothing less than the splendid fabric of the Empire in which you live. Your children, your homes, your kindred and your land are threatened as surely as the heart of the Empire. Strike, and show what your prowess is worth! Shoot straight, grasp your lance and ride at the foe! Charge with your bayonets and sound the trumpet of victory! Your King-Emperor has told you that he has drawn the sword for a righteous purpose, and that he will not sheath it until that purpose has been achieved. Be yours a share in the achievement!

And those you have left behind? You are fighting for them. Leave them to the tender care of a grateful country whose standard you are bearing aloft. An appreciative Empire will know your worth, and honour and cherish the loved ones whom you will ennoble with the undying fame of your deeds through centuries of history!

Remember the spirit of the great hero whom you have just buried. Bobs Bahadur is still speaking to you. He died as he had lived—simply, and with the soldiers, British, Colonial, and Indian, whom he loved so well. And yet there was a special bond that united him to India. He was born in Cawnpore, and laboured forty-one years in India. When he marched as a Sepoy General through the Bolan Pass, difficulties melted before him like the snow on the Shutar Garden in the summer. When he led his famous march to Kandahar he disappeared as one who leads a great adventure, but reappeared to the view of the world as a great General crowned with victory. In South Africa he gave his only son's life, and won laurels for his aged brow, which rank him as a good and humane man as well as a great soldier. And now he went to see his old soldiers, and died happy because he had seen them. What legacy can be greater than such an imperishable name—unsullied in the battlefield and ever associated with the call of duty? Will not India fight all the more nobly and proudly for such an example?

Such, O England! is the response of India to thy call. She wishes to stand shoulder to shoulder with thee, and solemnly, devotedly, affectionately to salute the Flag!

INDIANS OUTSIDE INDIA

MRS. GANDHI.

Mrs. Sarojini Naidu has addressed the following letter to Lady Mehta :—

Dear Lady Mehta,

I venture to write to you as I see by the papers that you are the presiding genius of the forthcoming function to welcome my friend Mrs. Gandhi home again. I feel that though it may be the special privilege of the ladies of Bombay to accord her this personal ovation, all Indian women must desire to associate themselves with you in spirit to do honour to one who by her race, qualities of courage, devotion, and self-sacrifice has so signally justified and fulfilled the high traditions of Indian womanhood.

I believe I am one of the few people now back in India who had the good fortune to share the intimate homelife of Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi in England : and I cherish two or three memories of this brief period in connection with the kindly and gentle lady, whose name has become a household word in our midst with her broken health and her invincible fortitude—the fragile body of a child and the indomitable spirit of a martyr.

I recall my first meeting with them the day after their arrival in England. It was on a rainy August afternoon last year that I climbed the staircase of an ordinary London dwelling house to find myself confronted with a true Hindu idyll of radiant and ascetic simplicity. The great South African leader who, to quote Mr. Gokhale's apt phrase, had moulded heroes out of clay, was reclining, a little ill and weary, on the floor eating his frugal meal of nuts and fruit (which I shared) and his wife was busy and content as though she were a mere modest housewife absorbed in a hundred details of household service, and not the world-famed heroine of a hundred noble sufferings in a nation's cause.

I recall too the brilliant and thrilling occasion when men and women of all nationalities from East and West were gathered together to greet them in convincing proof that true greatness speaks with a universal tongue and compels a universal homage. She sat by her husband's side, simple and serene and dignified in the hour of triumph as she had proved herself simple and serene and dauntless in the hour of trial and tragedy.

I have a vision too of her brave, frail, pain worn hand must have held aloft the lamp of her country's honour undimmed in one alien land, working at rough garments for wounded soldiers in another. . . . Red Cross work.

But, there is one memory that to me is most precious and poignant, which I record as my personal tribute to her, and which serves not only to confirm but to complete and crown all the beautiful and lofty virtues that have made her an ideal comrade and helpmate to her husband. On her arrival in England in the early days of the war, one felt that Mrs. Gandhi was like a bird with eager outstretched wings longing to annihilate the time and distance that lay before her and her far-off India, and impatient of the brief and necessary interruption in her homeward flight. The woman's heart within her was full of yearning for the accustomed sounds and scenes of her own land and the mother's heart within her full of passionate hunger for the beloved faces of her children And yet when her husband soon after, felt the call, strong and urgent, to offer his services to the Empire and to form the Ambulance Corps that has since done such splendid work, she reached the high watermark of her loyal devotion to him for she accepted his decision and strengthened his purpose with a prompt and willing renunciation of all her most dear and pressing desires. This to me is the real meaning of Sati. And it is this ready capacity for self-negation that has made me recognise anew that the true standard of a country's greatness lies not so much in its intellectual achievement and material prosperity as the undying spiritual ideals of love and service and sacrifice that inspire and sustain the mothers of the race.

I pray that the men of India may learn to realize in an increasing measure that it is through the worthiness of their lives and the nobility of their character alone that we women can hope to find the opportunity and inspiration to adequately fulfil the finest possibilities of our womanhood even as Mrs. Gandhi has fulfilled hers.

Believe me,

Yours sincerely,

(Sd.) SARAJINI NAIDU.



THE RULING CHIEFS OF INDIA.



THE RULING PRINCES AND CHIEFS OF SOUTHERN INDIA WHO HAVE LIBERALLY CONTRIBUTED TO THE HOSPITAL SHIP, MADRAS.

FEUDATORY INDIA.

MAHARAJA RANJITSINHJI OF BARIA.

The offer of personal service at the front made by His Highness the Maharaja Maharawalji Shree Ranjitsinhji of Baria at the outbreak of the war has been accepted by Government, and he has proceeded to the front.

At the time of his departure from Alexandra Docks there was a distinguished gathering present to bid farewell to His Highness, amongst whom were:—H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla, H. H. the Maharaja of Panna, H. H. the Maharaja of Ohhotaudepur, Prince Lakhdhiraj of Mervi, Princes Vijaysinhji Naharsinhji and Kiratsinhji, Dewan Saheb Rao Bahadur Harilal M. Parekh, the Hon. Mr. G. K. Parekh, Mr. Gordhandas Khatao, Mr. Jivanji Limjibhoy and many other State officials.

His Highness the Maharaja of Baria is a descendant of Prithiraj Chauhan, the Rajput Warrior, and his house has always been foremost in rendering assistance to the British Government whenever necessary. Since his installation, His Highness has done a great deal for his State and has instituted numerous reforms. He is a great sportsman and has won several cups.

Prior to his departure His Highness in a message to his people said:—I am proud to feel that my temporary absence from the State is necessitated in the interest of a noble, righteous and humane cause which is sure to be triumphant. Patience, prayer and goodwill must be expected from you who stay at home, while indomitable courage, firm purpose, undaunted bravery and unflinching faith in Divine justice must be inscribed on the escutcheons of those who go to the front. I call upon you all to invoke with one heart and voice the blessings of Heaven on the British Arms.

All the way from Baria to Bombay His Highness was the recipient of cordial wishes from his people residing in various cities.

Government have also accepted the services of His Highness' troops which consist mainly of Gurkhas and Rajputs and they will proceed to the front shortly.

In a manifesto to them, His Highness has enjoined them to acquit themselves honourably and bravely of the responsibility they may have to discharge while on active service.—*The Bombay Chronicle*.

THE TRAVANCORE STATE ASSEMBLY.

The address delivered by the Dewan in opening the Sri Mulam Popular Assembly deals with many topics of very great interest. The State Revenue rose during the year from Rs. 1,48,11,690 to Rs. 1,51,74,665. Expenditure also showed a similar expansion, rising from Rs. 1,45,98,015 to Rs. 1,57,12,790. The transactions of the year have thus resulted in a deficit of Rs. 2,38,125, reducing the Government Balance from Rs. 77,91,725 at the beginning of 1908 to Rs. 75,58,800 at its close. This deficit, however, is only apparent, as two items of expenditure on reproductive works, viz., the Kodayar Project (Rs. 3,15,437) and the Quilon-Trivandrum Extension of the State Railway (Rs. 5,30,065) were met from the General Revenues. If these items be excluded, the transactions would show a surplus of Rs. 6,07,377. At the same time, it should be recognised that, while the revenue during the last six years has increased by only 31.5 per cent. the expenditure has risen by 40.4 per cent. The surplus at the disposal of the Government is small, and will have to be largely drawn upon for the construction of the Quilon-Trivandrum extension of the railway.

INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTIONS IN GWALIOR.

According to *Jayaji Pratap* of Gwalior, there are in that State three distinct classes of industrial institutions, State owned; State financed, teaching or experimental; and privately owned. In the first group are included electrical workshops, electrical printing press, the leather factory and tannery and a steam laundry. Of these, all but the last one, are good paying concerns. The textile institutes and stores at Chanderi and the pottery works which form the second group are either paying now or will do so in the near future. The former has already revived the historical muslin industry of Chanderi; the latter has been started mainly with the object of training local labour. In this last group there are nearly 120 factories large and small. They are of all kinds, cotton presses, cotton gins, flour-mills, oil-mills, sugar grinding mills, foundries, and ice, tailoring, sandal oil, nib and sugar factories. The Inspector-General of Commerce and Industries of the State has also in preparation a scheme for the revival of the ancient *chippa* industry, and for establishing a gold thread industry.

AN INDUSTRIAL HOME IN BARODA.

On February 8, the Ruler of Baroda opened the "Chinnabai Industrial Home." This home, which owes its being to the efforts of H. H. the Maharani of the State, is intended to relieve as far as possible the misery of the women folk. Here household industries like knitting, sewing and lacemaking, will be taught. In his speech made at the opening of the Institute, Dewan Madhava Rao said:—

Institutions of this kind are alien to the genius of the Hindu people; but Her Highness has noticed, with the insight that comes of sympathy for her subjects, the changes that are slowly taking place in the conditions of family life and caste organisations, and has realised that many women widows will have to be provided with means of earning a livelihood if they are not to be left utterly destitute. This institution is fraught with immense good to the community. It is in directions like these that an Indian State, when especially the Rulers are animated by a spirit of social service, as in Baroda, has the advantage over British India.

Every well-wisher of India ought to feel satisfaction at the Bill, now before the Baroda Assembly, aiming at doing away with the dowry system.

THE MYSORE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Mysore Legislative Council met on the 10th instant. At that meeting a number of interpellations were put bearing on important topics. In response to a question relating to elementary education, a very interesting answer was elicited regarding the educational policy of the State. "New schools are ordinarily opened only in villages which provide free accommodation; and Government buildings are constructed for schools in existence for more than 10 years. Where a school is less than 10 years old, half the cost is generally required as contribution." Among the Resolutions moved at that meeting by the Government was the Bill to further amend the Mysore Local Boards Regulations 1902. Against this there was a very keen opposition on the part of the non-official members. They all seemed to believe that there was no essential need for the Bill, and that it was undertaken in response to the pressure of local but powerful interest. They urged on behalf of their contention that only 5 per cent. of the cases would be affected by the rule as amended in the manner proposed. Another noticeable feature of the debate on the question was the more or less unanimous expression of their disapproval of the present system of recruiting for Munsiff posts.

PARSIS AND JAMNAGAR.

As announced by us the other day, the Jamnagar State has held out an invitation to the Parsi community to come and take to agriculture. H. H. the Jam Sahab is prepared to give large plots, 100 acres apiece to each of the families of settlers on very long lease and at a very nominal rent. The lands are very fertile and well irrigated, so that the proverbial uncertainty of the monsoon would not be a factor to interfere with the prospects of success of the cultivation. Finally every possible help and assistance is promised to those that come, in the shape of not merely lip sympathy and advice, but something far more encouraging and far-reaching. His Highness generously undertakes to provide dwellings and shades for the families of the settlers. The capital required is not a large one. An outlay of some Rs. 3,000 would suffice for the purpose, and this would return in the shape of profits in about three years.—*The Jam-e-Jamshed.*

MAHARAJA HOLKAR OF INDORE.

The *Times of India* describes in detail two motor ambulance cars which have been presented by the Maharaja Holkar of Indore for the conveyance to hospital of wounded Indian soldiers from the front.

The cars are identical in every way. The body is painted in a pretty slate-grey enamel and on each side appear the Red Cross and the Royal initials. Each car is fitted for the accommodation of four lying down cases—two on stretchers slung in the upper part of the car and two on nicely upholstered seats, while there are single seats for four attendants; where the cases are not so serious and the patients can sit instead of lying down, more men can, of course, be accommodated. In this case eight or ten men can find room with ease, in addition to the attendants. A feature both of the seats below and the upper stretchers, are the springs, which are so arranged as to minimise the jolting and shaking of the car when in motion. The movement is reduced to almost *nil* by this means and renders the conveyance of the patient to the hospital as comfortable as can be imagined. The upholstering is in a shade of green, while the wooden portions of the interior are painted white, the two colours presenting quite a restful and pleasant appearance. The interior of the car is fitted with electric lights. Two cupboards are provided, in which dressings, medicines and so on may be kept. The ventilation of the car has received special attention, the result being that travelling is rendered as pleasant as possible.

INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL SECTION.

FREE AND OPEN TRADE IN BENGAL.

Miss. Monckton-Jones, writing to the 1st issue of the *English Historical Review* in this year, traces the growth of a policy of free-trade in the councils of the East India Company, at the close of the eighteenth century. At a time when Adam Smith was still at his work 'The Wealth of Nations' and when the Mercantilists and Navigationists were still powerful, this supremely monopolistic company was actively enjoining and practising some of the principles which Smith was later on to preach. Free and open trade was an old battle-cry, and was based on the 'natural rights and liberty of the subjects of England;' but it has always been understood as being liable to customs demands on the part of Government.

It was in the course of their affairs in Bengal and Madras that the East India Company lit upon a true policy of freedom of trade; they found in Bengal, a multiplicity of customs dues, road-tolls and local impositions which choked the sources of trade and enfeebled its functions and which were gradually removed from 1770. In their dual character as a corporation of merchants and a company with sovereign ruling powers, the Company experienced in full the double action of Government restrictions on trade; and while they appealed as subjects to George III to pass their surplus tea, duty-free to the American colonies, they, as lords of Bengal, authorised its passage, free of tolls through their presidency and negotiated with the native powers, for similar free transit through their states on the ground and plea that freedom in trade is necessarily productive of its increase. The external trade or Investment and the so-called Inland-Trade were both heavily mulcted at the customs-houses which fringed the Ganges highway, and at the country market-towns; while the whole system was abused by the malpractice of dustucks which rendered the goods of the Company's servants duty-free. Their precarious financial position and the possibility of Parliamentary intervention quickened in the Directors, a sense of the abuses of which both English and native officials were guilty, and they resolved on a strict inquiry and reform and finally deputed the task to Warren Hastings. In letters of instruction, a policy of freedom was repeatedly enjoined upon him and he was asked to "abolish the dustucks, to remove the petty Chokeys (customs-houses), to allow European

nations to pay at the general Chokeys as usual and nothing more, and to revoke the prohibition of trade with Shujah Dowlah's country (Oude)." In a letter they write:—

"It also seems to be agreeable to natural right and never can be against the interests of a state, when the channel of exportation is confined within an easy control, that every province should enjoy the consumption of its own commodities free of duty; and in such a situation, it can only be necessary to trace the progress of the superfluity."

Though the principle of free-trade was applied only to Inland-Trade, yet Hastings determined to carry out a simplification of customs in his treaties with the rulers of Oude, Benares, Cooch Behar and Tibet. The cumulative effect of these declarations and actions affords a splendid contrast to the 18th century politicians, not yet emancipated from the colonial theory and the policy of the Navigation Acts and even to forward statesmen like Pitt and Burke.

STATE-AID TO INDIAN INDUSTRIES.

Mr. Vithaldas Bhuta writing in the current number of the *Hindustan Review*, makes some practical suggestions by which Government and the people may take advantage of the present war and encourage home industries in many of the departments in which Germany is now our chief importer. Date-trees which lie unused in many parts of India may be made to yield sugar, and a recent Government telegram definitely assures us of this possibility. With necessary help and guidance rubber-plantations may be successfully tried and all the physical and climatic conditions of the growth of rubber are present in many parts of our land. Notably in the field of cigar manufacture, India spends nearly half-a-crore of rupees annually, over and above the value of the raw tobacco that it exports; and the official figures for cotton are still more striking. German exports to India come over nearly to 7 millions sterling; and if ever there has been an opportunity for Swadeshi enterprise, it is now and the whole movement has certain chance of Government favour. But it is a pity that our science and technology have not advanced far enough to all intents and purposes beyond book-learning and that Government aid, guidance, and subvention to infant industries should flow out in such a thin stream.

THE GLUE TRADE IN INDIA.

Information regarding the glue trade in India is given in a report by Mr. H. D. Baker, the American Consul at Bombay. Mr. Baker writes: "There is a very large business in India in the sale of glue, as well as of all classes of sizing materials for use in the local textile industries. In Bombay most of such business is done in German goods, and is handled by German and Parsi agents, together with one English firm, who are continually working among the various cotton mills to obtain orders, these being the largest consumers. There is considerable competition in such trade. No glue is made anywhere in India, as climatic conditions here seem to render it impossible, so that there is always a good opening for its import into this country, provided prices are suited to the competitive conditions. An English firm which has an important sale of its goods here, to meet the special Indian demand, has introduced what is known as Bazaar glues, the chief varieties of which are as follows:—Pale (Scotch quality), 10 by 1½ in.; ruby (Scotch quality), 10 by 1½ in.; dark bone, 10 by 1½ in.; opaque, 16 by 1½ in.; strip, 10 by 1½ in.; strip, 7 by 1½ in.; strip 6½ by ½ in. Also five varieties of powdered glues of concentrated size are sold for this market, two of them being especially suited to meet cheap price conditions here. For the conveniences of customers such glue is packed in packets when required at prices slightly higher than when in bulk, the sizes being ¼ lb., ½ lb., and ¾ lb."

OUTLETS FOR INDIAN EXPORTS.

The following *Press Communiqué* has been issued to the Government of India, Commerce and Industries department:—It is announced for general information that Mr. M. M. S. Gubbay, I. C. S., Collector of Customs, Bombay (on leave), has, as an experimental measure, been attached for a few months on special duty as Indian Trade Commissioner to the Board of Trade, City Office, 30, Cheapside, London. In this capacity, he will assist in finding outlets in the United Kingdom for Indian exports of raw and manufactured articles, which in normal years go to Germany and Austria Hungary or to other parts of the Continent, and which have lost their markets owing to the war.

All letters asking for Mr. Gubbay's assistance in this connection should be addressed through the Director General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, as in some cases this officer may be able to dispose of questions from information already available in his office.

INDIA'S MANUFACTURES.

The following list, says the *Indian Textile Journal*, will give an idea of the distribution of India's manufactures:—Cotton goods in all varieties, unbleached, bleached, dyed, plain or fancy woven, hosiery, tablecloths, towels, woollen shawls, rugs, blankets, ready-made clothing, boots, shoes, travelling bags and general leather works, cash and despatch boxes, portable furniture in iron paper, gold and silver thread and embroidery caps of wool, cotton, silk and felt, surgical instruments, jewellery, silverware, and precious stones, lanterns, plaster casts, soaps, perfumes, syrups, pickles, condiments, etc. With regard to the districts and the location of the various industries we have,—Dharawal and Cawnpore,—woollen goods of all kinds for clothing, blankets, rugs, worsteds, jhools and putties. Benares.—Silk cloths, plain and figured, of all qualities. Ahmedabad.—Cotton goods, canvas boots, shoe and slippers with hemp soles, inlaid boxes. Surat.—Silk in various colours and qualities, gold and silver thread work, and embroideries, carvings. Delhi.—Cotton carpets, cushions, razais. Kashmir.—Hats, caps, lacquered woodwork, "papier mache," mirrors, carving and carved furniture. Calcutta.—Sandals, steel pens, stylographs, articles of stationery, sealingwax, combs, brushes, buttons of pearl and other materials, studs and links, household Chinaware and pottery, glassware. Wazirabad.—Knives and penknives, scissors, razors, surgical instruments. Madras.—Aluminium ware. Alighar and Rajkote.—Pad and other locks. Talegaon.—Glassware of all kinds. Mysore.—Toys, fans, jewellery and other boxes, combs and brushes. Vizagapatam.—Ivory and sandal, wood-carving, tortoise shell work. Poona.—Paper in many varieties, envelopes, note and account books, inks, penholders, pencils in colours, brass vessels and castings, soaps, perfumery, tooth powders, drugs, etc., Bombay.—Chemical works, Iron work, etc.; safe and lock making is carried on on a large scale than anywhere else in India, the Godrej and Boyce Works at Parel being the largest in the country. This list does not represent all the industries that are at present in existence in India, but it offers a good general idea of what is being done. The most prominent feature is the cheapness of the articles, but although the quality of the material here is for the greater part excellent, the bulk of the goods do not come up to European standards. Setting aside the textile goods and a few others there is a lack of finish and accuracy in numerous articles whose material leaves nothing to desire.

ENGINEERING TRADE IN INDIA.

We take the following from the *Times Engineering Supplement* :—

The Engineering industry of India is a wholly internal trade, which, importing and not exporting, depends directly on the prosperity of Indian general trade. This during the last three or four years has been very prosperous. Tea, jute, and cotton have all done well, and the coal trade has steadily increased since 1909, the raisings in that year being 11,870,064 tons and 15,486,338 tons in 1913. Although there seemed to be signs in the earlier part of this year that there would be a slackening of prosperity which would affect engineering trade, yet the prosperity continued. The business of the Port of Calcutta may be regarded as an index of the position in India generally, and the returns for the four months ended July 31, which have just reached this country, show that there was an increase in the imports and exports combined of Rs. 64,70,792.

The present monsoon is good, and the excellent harvests of jute and tea which have been obtained should be followed by good rice and wheat crops. In spite of the war, and to some extent because of it all food products will be wanted by the world if the world can get them. By the meantime, however, exports are stopped, in the lack of shipping, a large number of vessels having been commandeered by the Government. War risk insurance has also been an adverse influence, though the effects have been mitigated by Government action. More serious, however, is the restriction in credit and facilities of finance, and hard things are being said about the policy of the London managed joint stock banks, who are accused of restricting existing credits, declining to grant new ones, and charging at high rates for such accommodation as they have given. How long this state of affairs will continue, remains to be seen, but if free facilities can be given to India for the continuance of trade, Asia, America, Africa, Australia, nearly all Mediterranean ports, the United Kingdom, and Scandinavia are open to her commerce. A considerable portion of the engineering trade, which would share in continued prosperity, has been in enemy hands and can be wrested from them

IRON AND STEEL.

The total imports into India in 1913-14, including private merchandise and Government stores but excluding treasure, were worth £127,000,000 and the exports £163,000,000, and the share of Germany in the imports was 6·9 per

cent. and in the exports 10·3 per cent. as regards articles of engineering interest. India now takes the first place among manganese producing countries, and ore was exported to the amount of 718,049 tons, of which Great Britain took 258,776 tons, Belgium 187,801 tons, the United States 106,327 tons, and France 103,847 tons. The exports of iron and steel reached 84,855 tons, a decrease of nearly 20,000 tons as compared with the preceding year. In this connexion it may be noted that the Tata Iron works increased their production from 97,367 tons of pig iron in 1912 to 140,293 tons in 1913, in addition to 15,003 tons of steel rails and 16,044 tons of beams, channel and bars, while the Bengal iron works contributed 59,379 tons to the production of the country. To a certain extent the war will act by way of protection to the home industry of India and it is fortunate at this juncture that she has her own production of iron and steel. Again, if the jute and cotton mills can be kept at work, the difficulties and risks attendant on a state of war will tend to make them get their needs for repairs and renewals met in India, and the same may be said of stores for railways, steamers, electric undertakings, mines, and tea gardens.

The imports of iron and steel and manufactures thereof other than for railways amounted to 1,016,000 tons, having a value of over £10,000,000 and representing an increase of 293,924 tons over the preceding year. The quantity sent from the United Kingdom increased by 177,073 tons to 607,146 tons, while Germany supplied 200,103 tons, as compared with 120,144 tons in the preceding year. Belgium sent 173,648 tons in place of 120,461 tons, and the United States 22,028 tons in place of 36,469 tons. The first place is taken by galvanized sheets, 274,759 tons of which, out of a total of 277,595 tons, were supplied by Great Britain. But with iron and steel bars and channel, which take the second place with 231,355 tons, the position is different, for 108,028 tons came from Belgium, 85,310 tons from Germany, and only 33,817 tons from this country. Germany was also ahead in sheets and plates not galvanized or tinned, for she sent 40,563 tons, against Great Britain's 38,894 tons and Belgium's 19,319 tons. Of angle and spring steel, she sent 14,299 tons the share of Great Britain being 17,038 tons, and of Belgium 12,316 tons, and her contribution of nails and rivets was 5,338 tons compared with 7,291 tons from this country and 3,315 tons from Belgium. In pipes and fittings (cast) she had a comparatively unimportant share,

sending only 4,101 tons, against Great Britain's 42,583 tons; Belgium's contribution in this department was only 468 tons, but the United States sent 9,037 tons. In beams and pillars she was, however, a more important competitor, supplying 21,554 tons, against 56,176 tons sent by Great Britain.

MACHINERY AND MILLWORK.

The value of the machinery and millwork imported into India in 1913-14 was over five millions sterling, an increase of 43 per cent over the previous year's figures. Textile machinery accounted for 42 per cent, of the total, while the other two most important items, steam engines and their components and electrical machinery, were worth about £670,000, and nearly £350,000 respectively. Of the total Great Britain supplied over 4½ millions sterling and Germany only about £287,000, but figures showing the amounts contributed by the different countries under the various headings comprised under machinery and millwork are not yet available. It may be said, however, that German steam engines and holders are practically unknown in India, apart from a few examples of Wolf engines which have been installed on account of their high efficiency; and while there are many Diesel engines of German manufacture, the British product commands the market so far as the ordinary gas and oil engine is concerned. Germany has perhaps the largest share in the supply of light railway material for collieries, including steel tubs. In recent years the Indian collieries have adopted electrical equipment to a considerable extent, and here German goods have found an opening; but a very small amount of German machinery has found its way into the Mysore Gold Fields, where British makers have rather had to meet competition from America. The Calcutta market is flooded with cheap German materials for electric wiring, such as cables, switches, ceiling-roses and cut outs, and though these are of the poorest quality, they are apparently "good enough," as the demand continues. It is regrettable also that such of the flour mills in and around Calcutta as are electrically driven have German motors' transformers, and switch gear installed, and practically all the electrical plant in the Tata Iron works is of German manufacture. In the textile machinery market, Germany has very little foothold, and the United Kingdom supplied 90 per cent, of the sewing machines, numbering 61,183 imported in 1913-14, Germany and the United States contributing 6 and 3 per cent. respectively.

RAILWAY MATERIAL.

Another important group of Indian imports is constituted by railway plant and rolling-stock and it is one moreover that is increasing in importance from year to year. In 1913-14 its value exceeded nine millions sterling, over 6½ millions being private and over 2½ millions on Government account. This total is almost double the average for the three years ending 1911-12, and the increase has been more rapid in the private than in the Government imports. The great bulk of the material comes from this country. The Government stores include imports worth barely £20,000 from Australia, the United States, and "other countries," while of the private imports Australia and Germany figure for about £200,000 each, and "other countries" for about £75,000. It is regrettable, however, that while the share of Australia has been falling off during late years, that of Germany has been steadily increasing, being in 1913-14 almost double what it was in 1912-13, and about 13 times the value in 1909-10.

Owing to the dissected figures for 1913-14 not being available as yet, it is impossible to say in what classes of railway material the Germans were most successful, but in the preceding year by far their largest contribution was in carriages and waggons and parts thereof, followed by steel or iron sleepers and keys, "other kinds of material," rails, chairs, and fishplates, and locomotive engines and tenders. Belgium in the same year supplied carriages and wagons to a value of about one-third that sent by Germany and in "other kinds of materials" appears for a value nearly half that of Germany.

It may be mentioned that in 1913-14 the expenditure on carriages and waggons amounted to nearly half the total, private and Government, while of a total capital expenditure of 12 millions sterling sanctioned for 1914-15 over 5½ millions are specifically allotted for the supply of rolling-stock. In 1913-14, 925 additional miles of railways were sanctioned, with 2,423 miles under construction or sanctioned for construction.

INDUSTRIAL INDIA. By Glyn Barlow, M.A. *Second Edition, Re. 1.* To Subscribers of the "Indian Review." *As. 12.*

INDIAN INDUSTRIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS.—By Professor V. G. Kale, Fergusson College, Poona. *Price Re. One to Subscribers of I. R. As. 12.*

G. A. Natesan & Co., Sunkurama Chetty Street, Madras.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS IN BEHAR AND ORISSA.

We take the following from the "Report on the Land Revenue Administration of the Province of Bihar and Orissa" for the year 1913-14, recently issued :—The weaving industry in the town of Bihar received an impetus during the year from the establishment of the Government Weaving School, and a weaving factory has been established in which some of the well-to-do residents of the town have taken shares. The mica mines in the Nawada sub-division continued to be worked on a fairly large scale, and generally with success. The output during the year was 307 tons, valued at Rs. 2,43,172. The lac industry, however, is gradually declining owing to falling prices. The manufacture of carpets at Obra and of tassar cloth at Manpur and Kadirganj continued, but these industries are in a decaying condition. The chief economic feature of the Shahabad district is the extensive quarrying of limestone and lime burning in the Sasaram sub-division. During the year 55,136 tons of limestone, 892 tons of ballast and 10,577 tons of lime were exported. Coarse cloths are manufactured in all the districts and mixed silk and cotton fabric called *Bafta* at Nathnagar within the Bhagalpur district. The jute trade in Purnea continues to expand and the quantity of jute grown yearly is increasing.

THE IRON INDUSTRY IN INDIA.

An address by Colonel F. J. Agabeg was read at the annual meeting of the Mining and Geological Institute of India held recently at Calcutta. In regard to the iron industry, Colonel Agabeg found that the output of iron ore in India had been practically stationary for many years at the insignificant average of about 80,000 tons per annum, until the year 1911 when the average output was almost quintupled owing to the increased production by the Tata Iron and Steel Company. A new discovery of a large body of iron ore has also enabled the Bengal Iron and Steel Company to extend their works at Barakar and I think we have now reason to hope that the iron and steel industry for which India was once so famous is in a fair way to be once more established in the country. So far, therefore, as iron is concerned we may fairly claim that there has been solid progress during the past eight years. Clearly, however, we have only got our feet so far on the first rung of the ladder and it must be many years before we shall have climbed high enough to grasp an appreciable share of the huge sums now paid annually for iron and steel manufactured abroad. The value of the imports of these materials amounted in 1913 to over twenty millions sterling exclusive of cutlery and with all the raw materials available in India there is a very wide field for the development of local industry.

AGRICULTURAL SECTION.

THE EXPORT OF WHEAT.

A Press *communiqué* of December 28 states :—

It will be remembered that the Government of India recently summoned a conference at Delhi to discuss the situation arising out of the abnormally high prices at which wheat is selling in Northern India. Prior to summoning the Conference, powers had been taken by the Government of India, under Ordinance 9 of 1914, to enable them and the Local Government to ascertain the amounts of and if necessary, to acquire stocks of any article unreasonably withheld from the market.

In connection with this Ordinance it appeared necessary also to deal with the question of future exports, for, if the application of the Ordinance succeeded in reducing the price of wheat, it is obvious that one of the immediate results would be a considerable stimulation of the export trade,

After a full discussion at the Conference, with representatives of the leading export firms at Karachi, the Government of India have decided that it is desirable to impose a reasonable limit on the quantity of wheat and wheat flour that should be exported before the 31st March, 1915. This quantity has now been fixed at 100,000 tons, including flour expressed in terms of wheat, reckoning from the 1st December, 1914, to 31st March, 1915. The total will be distributed between the chief exporting centres, namely, Karachi, Bombay and Calcutta, on the basis of the average trade of these ports for the last three years. The quantity allotted to each port will again be distributed among the exporting firms in proportion to the average extent of their business in such export.

It has also been decided that export shall be permitted to the United Kingdom and to the British possessions only.

SCIENTIFIC AGRICULTURE.

The Hon'ble Raja Reshee Case Law, C. I. E., Honorary Secretary, British Indian Association, has submitted the following letter to the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Kerr, C. I. E., I. C. S., Secretary to the Government of Bengal:—

"I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of your letter No. 11404 dated the 22nd December 1914, inviting an expression of opinion of the British Indian Association on the subject of giving a short course of training in scientific agriculture at the Dacca Government Farm to sons of land-holders and other gentlemen for the purpose of putting it to a practical use and in reply, I am directed to submit the following observations:—

2. "My Committee are of opinion that a practical scheme for giving a scientific training in agriculture will be welcomed by every class of people, as it is calculated to improve the material prosperity of the country, specially of the landholding classes who, no doubt, will take advantage of the facilities to be afforded by Government for educating their sons in order to make the ryots understand the benefits to be reaped by scientific agriculture. The ryots are, however, very conservative and fight shy of new improvements and it will take years of labour to convince them of the profitableness of such agriculture. My Committee are, however, of opinion that the method proposed to be adopted in carrying out the scheme will be productive of no useful results and will itself frustrate the very laudable object which the Government have in view for the following reasons:—

"First.—The short course of training for six or seven months, as proposed to be adopted, will serve no useful purpose and will be quite inadequate to give the students a thorough training. The period of study should, my Committee submit, be extended to not less than three years. Moreover, a preliminary training in Chemistry and Botany is absolutely necessary to enable the students to have a thorough grasp of the subjects mentioned in the letter under reply. To make them practical agriculturists, a sound knowledge of those subjects is essential, but the period of six or seven months cannot give them the thorough training which it is intended to impart to them. A mere smattering of the subjects without any previous training in Chemistry and Botany will lead to no practical good and if it is intended

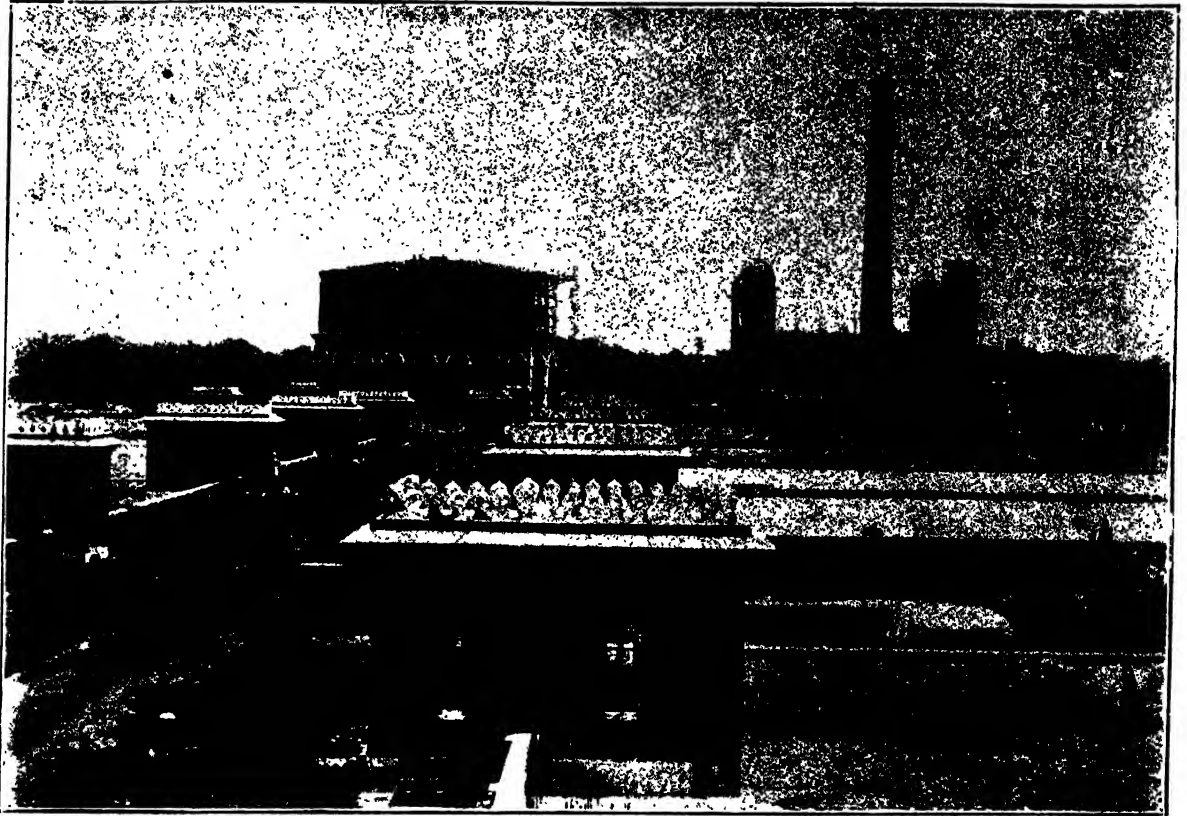
that the scheme should be effective, students who have some previous knowledge of the above subjects should be given a proper scientific training in order to make them practical agriculturists.

"Second.—My Committee beg to submit that Dacca, which is proposed to be fixed by Government as the proper place for imparting instruction in practical agriculture, may be a convenient site for the people of the eastern parts of Bengal but will be quite unsuitable for those in the western parts. The selection of a proper site is an important factor in the successful development of the proposed scheme and any error in this direction will be fatal to the scheme itself in as much as it will fail to draw a sufficient number of students from Calcutta and other places. It is for this reason that the site should be fixed in or near Calcutta, so as to draw students and make the institution attractive to the western portion of Bengal. The reason of long distance from their homes will deter them from joining the farm as students, as it has done in the case of the Agricultural College at Sabour in Behar where the number of students is very small. If practical agricultural training is to have any value, there must be a central college in or near Calcutta, there must be examinations and diplomas, and the authorities of the Sibpur College should be requested to co-operate with those of the above College and send their passed students in order to make it a success.

"Third.—It is desirable that students should be examined in the subjects they have studied in order to test their proficiency. If examinations are not enforced, they will have no sense of responsibility and are liable to idle away the period of training. The result of such a training would be very small indeed. My Committee find no reason why provision should not be made for conferring diplomas or certificates which the students naturally expect to have after examinations. Successful students should obtain degrees to indicate their proficiency in the subjects of their study and to convince the public of their merit so that it might follow their advice.

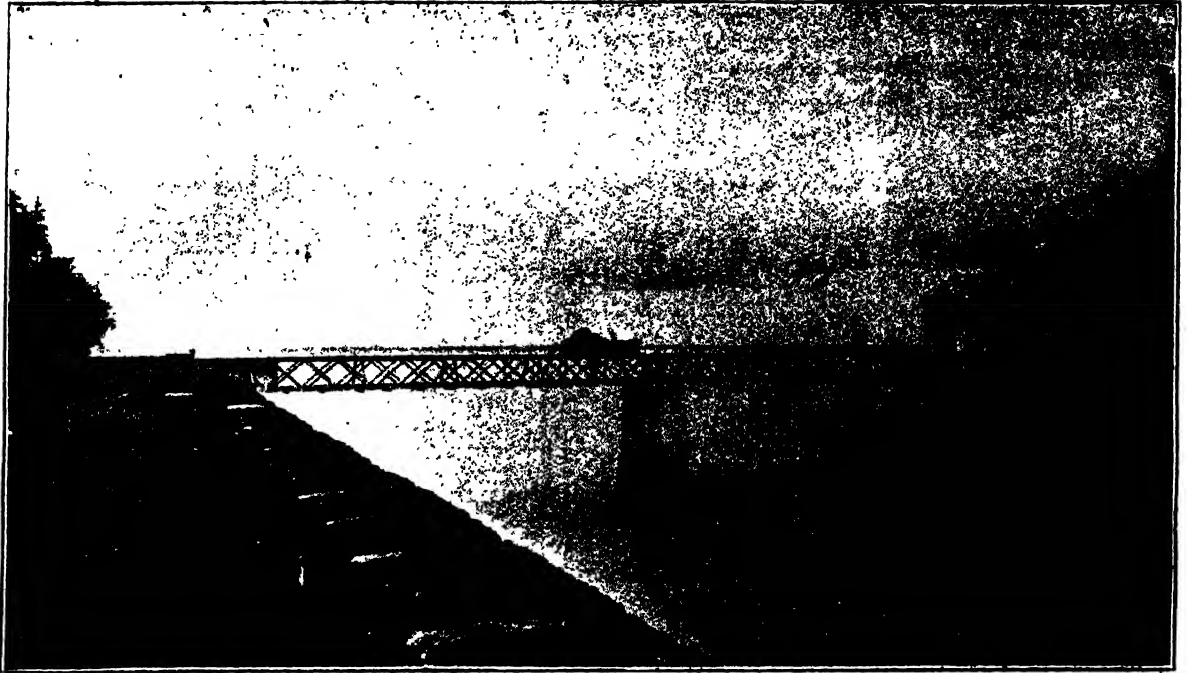
"In the circumstances, my Committee are not at present in a position to furnish any definite information as to the number of students who are likely to take advantage of the proposed scheme of a short training in practical agriculture at the Dacca farm. The Committee are afraid that the scheme as formulated will not be productive of any good result."

GENERAL VIEW OF THE MADRAS WATER-WORKS.



This photograph shows the two rows of seven filters with their valve houses. In the back-ground are the Elevated Tank and Pumping Station. The water is admitted to the filters from the Red Hills conduit which runs round outside the two rows of filters. The filtered water passes through the value houses into the underground pure water conduit between the filters ; it then enters the underground pure water tanks, situated between the filters and the Pumping Station and is finally pumped through a 48-inch diameter main into the distribution system. The Elevated Tank is provided to maintain a balance between the pumps and the distribution system.

INTAKE TOWER.



This tower, built where the lake is deepest, is provided with inlets at different levels through which the water is admitted into the new works, so that the purest water may always be drawn, whatever the level of the water in the lake. .



J. W. MADELEY, M.A., M. Inst., C.E.,¹
Special Engineer, Madras Corporation.



MR. HORMUSJI NOWROJI, A. M. I. C. E.,
Who designed and supervised the Works.

Literary.

"GOD SAVE THE KING."

A NEW VERSION.

By the courtesy of Mr. Clement K. Shorter the *Times* publishes the last poem of the late Mr. James Elroy Flecker, the poet of high attainments whose recent death at Davos at the age of 40 was keenly deplored. How "this magnificent—I say it—rewriting of 'God Save the King,'" as the author himself described it, in a letter written two days before his death, came to be written, is explained in the *Sphere* in a graceful appreciation of Flecker's work and genius.

God save our gracious king,
Nations and State and King.

God save the King!
Grant him good Peace Divine.
But if his Wars be Thine,
Flash on his Fighting Line
Victory's Wing!

Thou in his suppliant hands
Hast placed such mighty Lands;

Save Thou our King!
As once from golden skies
Rebels with flaming eyes
So the King's enemies
Doom Thou and fling.

Mountains that break the night
Holds he by Eagle Right,
Stretching far wing!
Dawn lands for youth to reap,
Dim lands where Empires sleep
His! And the Lion-Deep
Roars for the King.

But most these few dear miles
Of star flowered meadowed isles,
England, all spring.
Scotland that by the surge
Where the blank north doth charge
Hears Thy voice loud and large
Guard, and their King!

Grace on the golden dales
Of Thine old Christian Wales
Shower till they sing,—
Till Erin's island Lawn
Echo the dulcet-drawn
Song with a shout of Dawn—
God save the King!

JAMES ELROY FLECKER.

A BELGIAN POET.

The Christian Commonwealth publishes a most interesting interview with M. Emile Verhaeren, the Belgian poet, up to now very little known in England, but undoubtedly one of the prophets of the age. Stefan Zweig, who has written an appreciation of him, says:

"In Verhaeren's work our age is mirrored; the new landscapes are in it, the sinister silhouettes of the great cities, the seething masses of a militant democracy; the subterranean shafts of mines; the last heavy shadows of silent dying cloisters. All the intellectual forces of our time's ideology have here become a poem; the new social ideas; the struggle of industrialism with agrarianism, the vampire force which lures the rural population from the health-giving fields to the burning quarries of the great city. . . . All the manifestations of the new age are here reflected in a poet's soul in their action—first confused, then understood, then joyfully acclaimed—on the sensations of a new European."

So much for his work. The personality of the man is arresting. He has, according to his interviewer, the "gesture of greatness".

"It is not a matter of physical stature or of dress and appearance. My impression . . . was indeed that the poet was rather short and bowed down as though beneath a weight . . . But the greatness of his Spirit was clamant; it seemed to unfold as he talked with volcanic force, leaning forward . . . He energised the atmosphere by the sheer power of his personality and the strength and zest of his appetite for self-expression."

THE LITERARY JOURNAL.

An excellent example of literary enterprise among the students of the Arts and Law Colleges in Madras is the *Literary Journal* (published by the Young Men's Literary Association, Triplicane, Madras). The number for February contains a well thought out paper on "The Indian Renaissance" by Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A. There are various other contributions which appear unsigned, and if we presume they are from the pen of some of the students who conduct the journal, surely, Madras has every reason to be proud of the literary talent of its younger citizens.

Educational.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR TOWN PLANNING.

After consulting the Madras and South Indian Chambers of Commerce; Trades Association and some of the leading commercial firms in Madras, the Governor of Madras in Council considers the the State technical scholarships available for award in this presidency in the current year may be assigned for the study of architecture and town planning.

FREE BOARDING FOR STUDENTS.

Mr. Brigendra Non Roy of Durgakund suggests that the *chattrams* of Benares should be made to provide for the free board and lodging of the students of the city. This view has been strongly supported by the *Bengalee*. *New India* also draws attention to the same, and observes :

"The public have a right to ask that a portion of these charities, large as they are, should be applied to useful purposes. The religious side can best be kept alive by utilising part of the money for educational purposes. As "there is no charity like the charity of giving knowledge," and the duty, the main *duty* of the Brahmanas is learning and teaching, *Adhyayana* and *Adya-pana*, the charity based on religion should be given to those Brahmanas alone who are following the *spirit* of Brahmanism, and not to those born in the families of Brahmanas, but following the profession of Vaishyas."

MR. HORNELL ON THE CITY SCHOOL.

The distribution of prizes of the Tantra Bhabla M. E. School in the native village of Sir R. N. Mookerjee was held on the 5th inst. The School is maintained by Sir R. N. Mookerjee who was present with the Hon. Mr. Hornell, Director of Public Instruction, and Mr. Swan, the District Magistrate. An effort is being made to convert the school into a H. E. School.

Mr. Hornell, in the course of an address, said he had heard from the annual report something of the history of the school; how from a very small beginning it had developed into a M. E. School with nearly 200 boys, and that there was a general desire in the neighbourhood that the school should be raised to the status of a High School. Several weighty considerations were involved in this suggestion and he was not going to make any vague promises, but he undertook to consider the whole question of

the school's future in consultation with Sir R. N. Mookerjee, and did not doubt they should be able to come to a reasonable conclusion. On general grounds he would be glad to encourage the development of the school. He was not in favour of large schools; his view was that 400 to 500 boys were as many as any one headmaster could look after. Moreover he was most strongly opposed to the herding of boys in Calcutta and provincial towns. He was glad to see a school situated in a quiet place like Bhabla with plenty of space and light and air. One of the features of the educational position of to-day was the enormous and ever-increasing demand for admission into High Schools. He quite recognised that for certain classes of the population, as things are now, High School education was essential for their sons, but he doubted whether Bengali parents generally quite realised the terrible price that some of them were paying in order that their sons might obtain this education. He admitted that the position was a difficult one but he personally could not but deplore the conditions under which in some towns school boys were compelled to live, without care, without discipline, in insanitary surroundings, and without proper food. He reminded the audience that they were passing through a period of great educational activity. Controversy was in the air. They heard a great deal of the University of Calcutta and the proposed Dacca University. These topics were important, but he wanted everyone present to realise that it was in the secondary school of Bengal that the future of the Presidency would be worked out more than anywhere else.

DEATH OF REV. J. D. W. SEWELL.

The news of the death of Rev. Father J. D. W. Sewell, B.A., in the Madras General Hospital on the 13th instant has been received with great sorrow throughout Southern India, where the deceased was for almost four decades a well-known and much respected resident. Father Sewell, who was aged 78, belonged to a well known family which has given several members to the services in India. Mr. Sewell entered the Madras Staff Corps, and retired with the rank of Major in March 1877. Subsequently he embraced the Roman Catholic faith, was ordained priest and entered the Jesuit Society. He was largely instrumental in the development of Trichinopoly as a great educational centre, and St. Joseph's College, together with its fine pile of buildings, is a splendid monument to his organising genius.

Legal.

THE MADRAS HIGH COURT.

It would be remembered that the vacancy caused by the elevation of Justice J. E. P. Wallis to the Chief Justiceship has been filled up by the appointment of Mr. V. M. C. Coutts-Trotter as a Judge of the Madras High Court. The *Indiaman*, considers that Madras is fortunate in the fact that a man whose career at the Bar offered much promise will serve on the Bench. "Mr. Coutts-Trotter," says that journal, "is an old Pauline and had an academic career of great distinction. A scholar of Balliol, he took the double first expected of scholars of Balliol, and also won the Hartford and Eldon Law Scholarships. As a junior on the North Eastern Circuit, Mr. Coutts-Trotter had built up an important practice and was one of the Crown Counsel appearing in the recent trial of the German Consul Ahlers for high treason."

JUDICIAL REFORM IN EGYPT.

The *Times*, Cairo correspondent wired on December 31 :—The mandate of the Mixed Tribunals, the quinquennial period of which expires on January 31, will be renewed for one year. The vacancies created by the German and Austrian judges, whose contracts expire on January 31, but who have been given furlough and are being paid their salaries till January 31, will not be filled.

It is fully anticipated that not only will the work not be hindered, but in reality cases will be dealt with more speedily and more efficiently since simultaneously a new scheme for the constitution of the benches will be introduced. For a long time a deadlock has existed between the mixed Courts and the Egyptian Government on the question of the most expeditious manner of coping with the arrears of ever increasing work, the former desiring to increase the number of judges and the latter requiring first a reduction of the size of the benches, which, by permitting the formation of more courts, would, in its opinion, greatly relieve the congestion.

Latterly most of the Powers agreed to the Government's scheme, but Germany and Austria were steadfastly opposed to it.

In the present circumstances there is no reason for delay, and from February 1, the number of judges of First instance will be reduced from five to three and those of appeal from eight to five.

The benches existing hitherto have been too unwieldy to be practical, and unquestionably the smaller benches can do the work equally well, if not better.

It is noteworthy, though a fact little realized that the Organic Law lays down in regard to the mixed Courts that the Presidents of the Appeal Court in Alexandria and the First Instance Court in Cairo must be Egyptians. Strangely enough, on the outbreak of war, the Vice-Presidents were both Germans, but on the resumption of the sessions in October, the senior judges, Judge Sanders and Judge Halton, were nominated in each case.

As constituted before the war, the Mixed courts were composed of 64 judges, of which 23 were Egyptian. The Great Powers, whatever the extent of their local interest, had three judges and the lesser Powers two each. The mixed Courts, which were created in 1876 for five years, are usually renewed quinquennially, but sometimes continue for yearly periods. In this case the short renewal is due to the imminence of change and the consolidation of the judicial systems, and on the elaboration scheme at which Anglo-Egyptian legal authorities are at present hard at work, though no change is contemplated till after the war.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

Readers of the *Cosmopolitan*, a weekly newspaper published at Dehra Dun will be sorry to learn that that journal has fallen under the lashes of the Press Act. For a certain comment on the war, which the Local Government had marked out as seditious, the security of the paper and all the copies of the issue containing the said matter are forfeited. The publishers say :—

"In addition to the *Cosmopolitan* and several jobs that we have now in hand, we print two weekly papers in Urdu and Hindi, which must appear on due dates. This makes us feel more keenly the disappointment and inconvenience to our customers, than our own loss.

We have sent our application to the High Court under Section 17 of the same Act, to set aside the said order. If the High Court decides against us, we shall have to file a new declaration and furnish the security. And this will take time and we therefore ask our readers' indulgence, and request to be excused for their disappointment. In obedience to the order, our Press will have to remain closed from the 14th instant."

Medical.

MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS AND THE WAR.

With the approval of the Secretary of State for India the following terms of employment have been sanctioned for the European and Indian private medical practitioners, who have been or may in future be engaged for service with the overseas expeditionary forces.

(1) The Period of engagement is to be one year if their services are required for so long; (2) Pay and Allowances, pay at £ 1-4 per diem with free rations and quarters (the latter only if available, no allowance in lieu being admissible); (3) an advance of three months' pay if desired; (4) outfit allowance, £40 if outfit is purchased in India; (5) Rank; temporary rank of Lieutenant in the Indian Medical Service; (6) Gratuity; £60 on termination of engagement; (7) Travelling allowances at the rate laid down for Lieutenants in the Army Regulations, India, volume ten, paragraph 29, from their residence in India to the station to which ordered from "E" being used.

Employment on these terms does not confer any claim to permanent commissions.

AMBULANCE CONSTRUCTION.

This is the first great war in which field motor ambulances have been extensively used. It was inevitable that many defects should be found in existing types, and in various quarters experts began to ask whether something could not be done to standardise the patterns and to improve the type. At the instance of Mr. Henry S. Wellcome, the founder of the Wellcome Bureau of Scientific Research, a Commission has been formed, and the names of members show at once that the matter is regarded as of first importance by those most intimately connected with the welfare of the wounded soldier.

Sir Frederick Treves, whose long experience and distinguished service specially fit him for the task, has consented to be the Chairman. The Admiralty is represented by the Director General of the Medical Department, R. N., while the Quartermaster-General to the Forces and the Acting Director-General, Army Medical Service, represent the War Office. The British Red Cross Society is, of course, represented by Sir Frederick Treves, and the St. John Ambulance Association by Sir Claude Macdonald and Sir John Furley. The remaining members are all experts. This Commission will first and foremost act as a judging Committee for the award

of prizes of the value of £2,000 provided by the Wellcome Bureau of Scientific Research. These prizes are offered for the best designs of an ambulance body which shall fit a standard pattern motor-chassis for field motor-ambulances. The last day for the receipt of competing designs is the 30th June 1915. It is hoped that the competition will bring in a number of ingenious designs, from which the ideal field ambulance body will be evolved.

It may be asked why the competition is restricted to design for a body and not for the complete ambulance, including a chassis. The reason is that a chassis takes much longer to build than a body, and that, when war breaks out, it is impossible to get at short notice anything like a sufficient number of any one type of chassis. On the other hand, a standardised body to fit any chassis of approved dimensions can be constructed in numbers at comparatively short notice. And a perfected body is badly wanted to ensure complete comfort for the wounded.

It is hoped that the information obtained by the competition, and in other ways, will be published in some permanent form, available for future reference. Probably in addition to one design of special excellence, there will be submitted various ingenious suggestions which may be incorporated in the pattern design approved by the Commission.

KIT-BAGS FOR INDIAN SOLDIERS.

A scheme for providing Red Cross Kit Bags for Indian Soldiers on leaving hospital, or on arrival in India invalided, has received the approval of the Director of Medical Services in India, and Committees of the Ambulance Association are invited to supply them.

The bags should be 20 inches by 15 inches, made of Khaki drill marked with the Red Cross and the words 'For One Indian Soldier.' They should contain

1 Lohi (or Indian Shawl), 1 Vest, 2 Pairs Socks, 1 Pair Deck Shoes, 1 Towel, 1 Kurta, 1 Housewife complete, 1 Box bidees, 1 Batooa, 1 Packet Toothsticks, (Datans), 1 Piece of Soap, 2 Coloured Handkerchiefs.

It is estimated that a thousand of these bags will be required monthly and is also estimated that they will cost Rs. 16 each.

Twenty bags can be packed in a box of the same dimensions as the box used for Ten-Bed Units of the Red Cross Gifts.

Bags intended for Sikhs should not contain any 'bidees,' and should be marked, 'For Sikhs only.'

Science.

INDIAN SCIENCE CONGRESS.

The Second Session of the Indian Science Congress opened on the 14th of January 1915 at Madras. The Governor of Madras welcomed the delegates from the different provinces and thanked Dr. J. L. Simonsen of the Presidency College as being one of two gentlemen—the other being Prof. P. S. MacMahon of Lucknow—to whose energy the creation of the Congress is due.

The President, the Hon. Surgeon-General W. B. Bunneman delivered an eloquent address and spoke on biology and referred to the scourges of India, the ignorance of the common people and the help from the educated. He insisted that hygiene should be taught in school, and touched on the importance of revenue officers devoting more attention to sanitation. He next referred to the plague and the plague-rat and the part played by the flea in the transmission of that disease. He also touched on malaria and what had been done to combat it. He thanked the Raja of Pithapuram for Rs. 50,000 presented for the expenses of an inquiry into diabetes. Referring to the prevention of the disease, the Surgeon-General said:—"We not only require research workers, we want an organisation that will help to educate people in ordinary rules of health: there should be in each presidency an official whose business it is to look after the hygienic education of the common people. He should be in charge of the bureau of public health and his work should consist in preparing pamphlets and popular lectures with lantern slide illustrations which could be lent to lecturers who would undertake to itinerate in villages and talk to the common people. He should organise classes for teachers in our teachers' colleges, and he should gather together and popularise information from every quarter. Such an official, who has to be very specially selected, would do an immense amount of good in educating people, and without education we can hope for very little advance along the road to health. Until the usefulness of such a bureau is fully established, we can perhaps hardly expect much help from the Government, for they have plenty to do with public revenues, but I am quite sure they would view any endeavour to educate the masses with a sympathetic eye. I have again, I am afraid, wandered far from strict

letter of my text but my excuse must be that knowledge of biology is so important to all medical and scientific workers in India and so intimately bound up with the welfare of the people of India that I have been led on to talk of that most important subject. This subject lies very near my heart for I have lived and worked among these people for 30 years and have known their sufferings and admired their quiet heroism."

The different sections of the Congress met afterwards and many learned papers were read and discussed.

THE TATA HYDRO-ELECTRIC SCHEME.

The scheme which will soon supply Bombay Mills with electricity, has taken a much longer time to complete than was originally expected, but this protraction is said to have added considerably to its success. The first steps in the scheme were taken in the life-time of the late J. N. Tata, and he spent no less than six lakhs in investigating its possibilities. The definite undertaking fell to the lot of his sons, who floated the present Company. The arrangements, which in the result, supply the necessary electricity to Bombay, are quite simple. By means of huge dams, three lakes are constructed in the Western Ghats, and water from them is made to fall 1,700 feet, by the power of which the current is generated and transmitted to Bombay. It was doubted, at the inception of the scheme, whether the supply of water from the artificial lakes would be enough and continuous in the summer months, and the experience during the last summer has proved that the supply would exceed the demand.

When the present scheme is in full working order, it will be possible to develop 125,000 horse-power, but this is reported to be insufficient to supply Bombay with all the comforts which an average citizen expects to derive from the present scheme. And to supplement its capacity it is believed that the Tatas have another scheme in view, not far from the situation of the present one, which at less cost per unit is believed to be capable of supplying 60,000 horse-power. The existing Company will be given the first option of subscribing for shares in the new venture, and it is likely that the two will work hand-in-hand.

Personal.

STATESMANS' SONS WITH THE ARMY.

With one or two exceptions, His Majesty's Ministers and the leading Opposition statesmen—at present practically forming a coalition—are vitally interested in the war by the closest personal ties.

Of the Prime Minister's sons, Mr. Arthur Asquith has already had his baptism of fire at Antwerp with the Naval Division and Mr. Cyril Asquith is a subaltern in the 16th County of London Regiment. Mr. Gwilym and Richard Lloyd George have obtained commissions in the 6th Royal Welsh Fusiliers, in which battalion the first named has already secured a captaincy.

Lord Crewe has sustained a heavy bereavement by the death in action of his son-in-law, Captain O'Neil. The noble lord's second daughter is the wife of Captain E. C. Coates. The Secretary for War has a nephew, Commander Henry Chevallier Kitchener, serving with the Grand Fleet and a brother, holding a lieutenant-colonelcy in the Army.

Mr. Churchill has a brother, Mr. John Churchill, a major in the Oxford Yeomanry. Mr. Masterman is married to a daughter of General Sir Neville Lytton: Mr. McKenna is married to a daughter of Colonel Jekyll.

Lord Haldane of Cloan's nephew Mr. J. B. S. Haldane, is a 2nd-lieutenant with the 3rd battalion R. Highlanders. Mr. Hobhouse was once lieutenant-colonel, commanding the 6th Gloucester Regiment. The Censor, Sir Stanley Buckmaster, is following the fortunes of a very near relative who has enlisted in Mr. Owen Buckmaster (Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry): while, Mr. Birrell, by marriage can boast relationship to the three gallant sons of Lord Tennyson, two of whom, Lionel and Alfred, are in the Rifle Brigade, and the third is a midshipman.

The Lord Chief Justice's son, Mr. Gerald Isaacs, married only a few weeks ago, is in the Officers' Training Corps. Lord Beauchamp has two half-brothers, the Hon. Robert and the Hon. Henry Lygon, serving in the Grenadier Guards and Suffolk Yeomanry respectively.

Colonel Seely is at the front, as are also Major F. E. Smith and Colonel Sir Mark Sykes. Mr. Walter Long has a son fighting in Captain W. Long, D.S.O., Dragoon Guards. Lord Lansdowne has suffered a cruel loss in the death of Lord Charles Merces Narine, his second son. Sir

Edward Carson's two sons are both with the colours, Mr. Seymour Carson being in the Navy.

Mr. Balfour is intimately concerned in the doings of the Cecils. All four sons of the Rev. Lord William Cecil—Randle, Victor, John, and Edward—have enlisted, two coming from Canada. Mr. Bonar Law's son Charles, holds a commission in the Scottish Borderers; while that distinguished neutral, the Speaker, has likewise sent a son to the colours as a private in the New Army.

MRS. SAROJINI NAIDU ON HER FATHER.

This is how Mrs. Naidu speaks of her father—
“My ancestors for thousands of years have been lovers of forests and mountain caves, great dreamers, great scholars, great ascetics. My father is a dreamer himself, a great dreamer, a great man whose life has been a magnificent failure. I suppose in the whole of India, there are few men, whose learning is greater than his and I don't think there are many men more beloved. He has a great white beard and the profile of Homer, and a laugh that brings the roof down. He has wasted all his money on two great objects; to help others and on alchemy. He holds huge courts every day in his garden of all the learned men of all religions—Rajas and beggars and saints and downright villains all delightfully mixed up, and all treated as one. And then his alchemy! Oh dear, night and day, the experiments are going on and every man who brings a new prescription is welcome as a brother. But this alchemy is, you know, only the material counterpart of a poet's craving for Beauty, the eternal Beauty.”

THE QUEEN OF THE BELGIANS.

Many stories are told of the unostentatious kindness of the Queen of the Belgians before the war broke out. For instance, she received information that a girl who had shown promise as a violinist had fallen on evil days and was dying in a miserable tenement in the lower quarters of Brussels. The poor girl was in the last stages of fever, and it was clear that nothing could be done to save her life. However, the Queen asked her if she had any wish, and the girl asked that the pieces of music with which she had earned distinction as a performer, might be played to her again before she died. The Queen left her with a promise to return, and soon she came again, followed by a lackey, carrying a violin case. The Queen, who is herself a very talented violinist, played the girl's favourite pieces, and till her patient died she returned with her violin every day.—*Manchester Guardian*.

Political.

BRITAIN'S NEW TREATY WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Here is the full text of Britain's new Treaty with the United States:—

His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and the President of the United States of America, being desirous of strengthening the bonds of amity that bind them together and also to advance the cause of general peace, have resolved to enter into a Treaty for that purpose, and have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:—

Article 1.—The High Contracting Parties agree that all disputes between them, of every nature whatsoever, other than disputes the settlement of which is provided for and, in fact achieved under existing agreements between the High Contracting Parties, shall, when diplomatic methods of adjustment have failed, be referred for investigation and report to a Permanent International Commission, to be constituted in the manner prescribed in the next succeeding article; and they agree not to declare war or begin hostilities during such investigation and before the report is submitted.

Article 2.—The International Commission shall be composed of five members, to be appointed as follows:—

One member shall be chosen from each country by the Government thereof; one member shall be chosen by each Government from some third country; the fifth member shall be chosen by common agreement between the two Governments, it being understood that he shall not be a citizen of either country.

The expenses of the Commission shall be paid by the two Governments in equal proportions.

The International Commission shall be appointed within six months after the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty, and vacancies shall be filled according to the manner of the original appointment.

Article 3.—In case the High Contracting Parties shall have failed to adjust a dispute by diplomatic methods, they shall at once refer it to the International Commission for investigation and report. The International Commission may, however, spontaneously, by unanimous agreement, offer its services to that effect, and in such case it shall notify both Governments and request their co-operation in the investigation,

In the event of its appearing to His Majesty's Government that the British interests affected by the dispute to be investigated are not mainly those of the United Kingdom, but are mainly those of some one or more of the self-governing Dominions, namely, the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, and Newfoundland, His Majesty's Government shall be at liberty to substitute as the member chosen by them to serve on the International Commission for such investigation and report, another person selected from a list of persons to be named, one for each of the self-governing Dominions, but only one shall act—namely, that one who represents the Dominions immediately interested.

The High Contracting Parties agree to furnish the Permanent International Commission with all the means and facilities required for its investigation and report.

The report of the International Commission shall be completed within one year after the date on which it shall declare its investigations to have begun, unless the High Contracting Parties shall limit or extend the time by mutual agreement. The report shall be prepared in triplicate; one copy shall be presented to each Government and the third retained by the Commission for its files.

The High Contracting Parties reserve the right to act independently on the subject matter of the dispute after the report of the Commission shall have been submitted.

Article 4.—This Treaty shall not affect in any way the provisions of the Treaty of the 11th January 1909, relating to questions arising between the United States and the Dominion of Canada.

Article 5.—The present Treaty shall be ratified by His Britannic Majesty and by the President of the United States of America by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington as soon as possible. It shall take effect immediately after the exchange of ratifications and shall continue in force for a period of five years, and it shall thereafter remain in force until twelve months after one of the High Contracting Parties has given notice to the other of an intention to terminate it.

Done in duplicate at Washington on the fifteenth day of September, in the year of Our Lord, nineteen hundred and fourteen.

CECIL SPRING RICE.

WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

General.

ESTIMATE OF BELGIAN LOSSES.

The *Tablet* publishes the following table compiled by M. Henri Masson, Avocate and a Cour d'Appel de Bruxelles, of the losses inflicted upon Belgium by the Germans during the first 82 days of the war. The loss has, of course, since been enormously increased:—

Liege and its vicinity: Buildings, trade, and forts	£ 6,916,000
Tirlemont: Trade and buildings ..	1,104,000
Louvain: University, buildings, and trade	7,432,000
Aerschot	248,000
Malines: Cathedral, works of art, etc.	1,532,000
Namur: Buildings, trade, and forts ..	4,786,400
Dinant (and costly chateaux along the river)	3,131,000
Charleroi and vicinity: Buildings and countless factories	20,642,000
Mons	136,000
Tournai, Louze, and Ath	100,000
Hasselt, Turnhout, and Moll	308,400
Alost: Trade	392,000
Termonde	388,000
Damage to rural districts: crops, cattle, pigs, sheep, horses; chateaux and vilas burnt and sacked ..	56,722,800
Antwerp and vicinity: forts, trade, and buildings, goods and food-stuffs	20,230,000
State: buildings, railways, monuments, bridges, roads, etc. ..	48,000,000
Damage caused by interruption of trade, cancelled orders, loss of workman's pay, etc.	40,000,000

Total .. £212,057,600

According to a Reuter's telegram from Amsterdam, *Het Volk* learns from Hoboken, a suburb of Antwerp, that the situation there is deplorable. All the workmen have returned, but no work can be found for 20,000 unemployed and the distress is, therefore, extremely great, especially as there are no supplies of food. Only one factory is showing activity, viz., that which has been transformed into a crematorium for the dead German soldiers.

RAMAKRISHNA HOME.

From the thirteenth annual Report of the Ramakrishna Mission Home of Service at Benares, it is evident that that institution is making constant progress. The number of indoor and outdoor patients nursed and cured has grown larger with each year of its thirteen years' existence, until now, the work has assumed extensive proportions and is a constantly increasing blessing both to the numerous poverty stricken and afflicted persons of that city and to the even more numerous aged and helpless sick or abandoned pilgrims that congregate there.

On the newly acquired land it is proposed to erect certain additional wards for patients suffering from contagious or other diseases requiring complete isolation, also separate quarters for the workers and for a resident physician. The Home is planning a "Refuge" for invalids and buildings to house helpless widows and orphans. This necessitates the expenditure of much money and as the Home has no fixed resources, depending entirely upon charity, it is earnestly hoped that the public will come to its aid in supplying funds for the buildings or for the maintenance of beds and wards and otherwise do their best to place the institution on a permanent basis.

It is needless to say that the workers receive no monetary recompense for their labours. They serve in the spirit of worship and they pray that all others will help, as far as lies in their power. All donations and contributions may be sent to the Assistant Secretary, Ramakrishna Mission Home of Service, Benares City.

GREAT SLAUGHTER OF WAR.

Summing up the statistics of dead and wounded in the Balkan wars, Dr. Octave Laurent, surgeon of St. John's Hospital, Brussels, who followed the Balkan troops for eleven months, says that in the one month of July, 1913, 150,000 men were killed or wounded on both sides, and more than half of them fell in six days, from June 30th to July 5th. He quotes these remarks of a commentator on the deadliness of modern war: "If you put zero behind each of these numbers you will have some idea of the effective strength of the armies and the losses that must be presumed to take place in any war which would tomorrow set the armed forces of any two first-class powers of Europe on the fighting line before each other. There would be not less than 1,500,000 dead and wounded in the course of the first month."

The Surat Imbroglio & the Allahabad Convention

BY BAHU AMBICA CHARAN MUZUMDAR.

TWENTY Sessions of the Congress were held in perfect peace and patience supported only by an unswerving confidence of the people in the strong sense of British justice and the ultimate triumph of British statesmanship of which it was confidently affirmed that if it had blundered in many places had failed no where at the end, although within this sufficiently long period the only concession of note obtained was a half-hearted measure of nominal reform of the Indian Councils under a Parliamentary Statute of 1892 which the Government of India took precious good care still further to restrict in its application as an experiment. It was a reform to which the Congress had attached the greatest importance from the very beginning and for which it had made no small sacrifices both here as well as in England. In 1890 Charles Bradlaugh on behalf of the Congress at last introduced in the Commons a Bill for this reform and the Government of the day, true to its conservative instinct and tradition, seeing that a change was inevitable adroitly wrested away the proposed legislation from the hand of a private radical member and introduced a Bill of its own which was a perfect counterfeit both in form as well as substance. In vain Mr. Gladstone expressed the hope that in its practical operation it might carry some value with the people and Lord Cross' so called reform measure fell flat upon the country. As regards the other complaints of the Congress and the people not even a courteous reply was vouchsafed to any of them. A feeling was thus gradually gaining ground in the country, in spite of the robust optimism of its leaders, that the Government with all its commissions and committees, as well as its elaborate minutes, despatches and resolutions, was not disposed to make any real concessions to the people; that its settled policy was to keep the people under perpetual tutelage and govern the country by its annual pyrotechnic displays of honours and titles and by occasionally throwing, when absolutely necessary, a morsel here and a morsel

there to the children of the soil in the public services and above all by steadfastly clinging to the pestilential doctrine of *divide-et-empire*. The feeling was perhaps somewhat exaggerated and not fully justified; but there it was among a considerable section of the people who sincerely believed that the authorities were, as a whole, strongly opposed to the slightest modification of the vested rights and privileges of the bureaucracy upon whose inviolable strength the safety of the Empire was supposed to be based and that as such they were fully prepared to treat Indian public opinion as voiced by the Congress, as well as the Press, with perfect indifference if not with absolute disregard and contempt. Men were not indeed wanting even in high places who derisively snapped their fingers at the suggestion of driving discontent underground. This regrettable feeling became further intensified during the weak viceroyalty of Lord Elgin when the bureaucracy attained its highest ascendancy and secured a complete mastery over the administration. When King Log was succeeded by King Stork the position of the Congress became still more critical. No viceroy ever came out to India with brighter prospects of success and left it with greater unpopularity than Lord Curzon. The retrograde policy which he so vigorously and unreservedly initiated in all directions culminated in a series of unpopular measures which successively marked the unfortunately extended period of his viceroyalty. The Official Secrets Act, the Indian Universities Act and last of all the Partition of Bengal followed in quick succession and the wave of popular discontent began to surge from one end of the country to the other. He was reported to have actually proposed the appointment of a permanent Viceroy for India, and whether he had an eye on himself or not it was a most fortunate circumstance both for India as well as England that such an extravagant proposal was not entertainable under the British constitution. The efforts of the Congress during this period were almost paralysed, and the bulk of the people nearly lost all confidence in its propaganda.

* A chapter from the writer's forthcoming book on "Indian National Evolution," to be published shortly by Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.

Towards the end of 1905 the Liberals came into power with Mr. John Morley as Secretary of State for India. The people who had the utmost confidence in Mr. Morley's liberalism fondly hoped that with the change of government a change would also be perceived in the policy of the Indian administration. In this they were painfully deceived, and a section of the Nationalist party as represented in the Congress feeling themselves tired of what they called the "mendicant policy" of the movement wanted to divert it on new lines. This the sober leaders, backed by an overwhelming majority in the Congress and the country, stoutly resisted and the result was that the people were divided into two camps, the Moderates and the Extremists—terms invented by the official organs since 1904, but which are used in these pages in no offensive sense. The earliest symptom of this difference appeared at the Benares Congress of 1905, and the first open rupture manifested itself in the Calcutta Congress of 1906, when a small body of these Extremists finding themselves unable to have their own way rushed out of the Pandal leaving however no perceptible void in the densely packed assembly of over sixteen hundred delegates and five times as many visitors. It was no doubt true that the whole country had grown dissatisfied with the stolid indifference and immobility of the Government and that an overwhelming majority of the educated community had taken deep offence at the constant flouting of public opinion and the deliberate substitution of a policy of reaction in almost every branch of the administration. Moderates and Extremists alike and with equal emphasis protested against the attitude of the Government and with equal firmness deprecated an ignominious begging spirit and urged the people to take their stand more upon justice than upon generosity and upon their own just rights more than upon concessions of Government. There was however this difference, that while the majority of the Nationalist party knew what they were about, the minority hardly knew their own mind and in a spirit of exasperation lost their balance. At this memorable session held under the third and the last distinguished presidency of the Grand Old Man of India, the Congress unanimously passed four important resolutions which bore unmis-

takeable evidence of the spirit of the times, confining itself however within the strict limits of constitutional agitation and in keeping with its original constitution as well as its past traditions. These were Self-Government on the Colonial lines, National Education, Swadeshi and Boycott of foreign goods. The first had been the avowed object of the Congress almost from the very beginning. It was now laid down with precision and firmness as the ultimate goal of the National Assembly. The second resolution was felt as necessitated by the officialization of the Universities and the threatened curtailment of Education under the policy inaugurated by Lord Curzon; the third was deemed imperatively necessary for the protection and encouragement of the dying industries of the country; while the fourth and the last was intended as a protest against the systematic flouting of public opinion in the country, as also to draw the attention of the British public and Parliament to the grievances of the Indian people. The first resolution was announced by the Extremist press as the *Svaraj*

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resolution though the dubious word *Shwara* was to be found nowhere in the resolution itself, and was used only once by the President in his inaugural address of course in a perfectly legitimate sense. The Separatists evidently smarted under a sense of wrong and throughout the year that followed kept up an agitation through the columns of their papers as well as upon the platforms decrying the Congress and preaching the "utter futility" of the Congress propaganda; although what other propagandum there was to present to the country, they were able neither to formulate nor to indicate. Theirs was apparently a work of destruction and not of construction.

The next Congress was to have been held at Nagpore, but some serious local differences arising, the All-India Congress Committee had to change the venue of the session from Nagpore to Surat which was the rival candidate for the honour at the previous session of the Congress. Early in November 1907 a rumour was circulated by some mischievous or designing people that the Twenty-Third Session of the Congress would have nothing to do with the four new resolutions of the preceding session and this *canard* was persistently kept up till the 24th and 25th December when all the delegates to the Twenty-Third Indian National Congress arrived at Surat, although no one when asked was able precisely to refer to the source of his information. It was evidently like the proverbial story of the ghost whom every one had heard of, but none had seen. The Extremists under the leadership of that remarkable man, Mr. Bal Gangadhar Tilak, encamped themselves at a place three miles distant from the Congress camps, and many were the rumours afloat that something serious was going to happen at this session of the Congress. The baseless accusation about the exclusion of the four resolutions was again repeated; but it was at once refuted not only by the verbal assurances of the responsible authorities of the Congress, but also by the subsequent production of an agenda paper containing those resolutions. The oppositionists then laid hold on the question of presidentship and urged that Lala Lajput Roy and not Dr. Rashbehary Ghose should have been nominated as president-elect. The patriotic Lala however cut the Gordian knot by publicly declining to

stand as candidate for the presidential chair. Upon this another person was mentioned as a probable candidate for the post. It seemed rather difficult to ascertain what really the motive was in all these manoeuvres; but people were not wanting in the Congress camps who actually believed that the speech of Dr. Ghose, the president-elect, had somehow leaked out and that the extreme section of the Congress party having discovered that there were certain caustic observations regarding them and their ideals in that speech they were determined at all hazards to prevent that speech from being delivered at the Congress. However that may be, the Congress met on the 26th December at about 2-30 p.m., on account of the sudden death of a Sindhi delegate, in the grand pavilion constructed by the Reception Committee in the old historic French Garden which had been converted into a pretty little town for the occasion. Full 1,600 delegates and over 5,000 visitors were assembled in the Pandal. Every face was beaming with enthusiasm and as every prominent man passed on to the dais he was lustily cheered. At last the President-elect entered the hall in a procession and he received such a tremendous ovation that the last shred of doubt and suspicion about the success of the session seemed at once to have vanished from the hall. No sooner calm was restored a whisper was however heard going round a very limited block that all was not well and that an untoward incident was brewing somewhere; but not a few among the robust optimists confidently hoped that the lowering cloud would instantly pass away and the session prove a brilliant success. The rest of the painful and humiliating episode may, however, be narrated, for merely historical purposes, in the words of an impartial observer. The following telegraphic report under date the 26th December from the special correspondent of the *Statesman* appeared in that paper and was reproduced in the *Pioneer* of the 30th idem:—

The twenty-third National Congress met on Thursday afternoon in the grand pandal at Surat at a place known as the French Garden. The pandal is a large square with seating capacity for over 7,000, and the whole place was filled to its utmost capacity. Long before the President-elect, the Hon. Dr. Ghose, arrived, the delegates and spectators had taken up every available seat and some of the busy Extremist leaders took occasion to harangue their followers. Mr. Khare, an Extremist leader

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of Nasik, intimated to a group of Maharashtra Extremists that the Congress should be asked to include the resolutions on boycott, swaraj, and national education in the year's programme and if this was not considered favourably, Mr. Tilak was to oppose the motion formally voting Dr. Ghose to the presidential chair. This announcement was received with approval and applause by the Poona Extremists, and also elicited approbation from the feeble ranks of the Madras Extremists. There were appeals made to the excitable spectators by irresponsible and mischievous preachers in the pandal, with the result that for over an hour before the President's arrival, the scene was one of excitement among the Extremists and intense anxiety among the Moderates.

Meanwhile the leading Congressmen from several parts as they arrived were greeted with ovations. Lala Lajpat Rai's arrival was the occasion for the greatest enthusiasm, demonstrated in a most unmistakable manner. He was conducted to the platform and took his seat between Dr. Rutherford and Mr. Surendra Nath Banerjee. Sardar Ajit Singh also received some demonstrations. The long platform at the western end of the hall was occupied by a distinguished gathering of the principal Congressmen and visitors. There were among those present at the Congress, leaders like Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, the Hon. Mr. Gokhale, Sir Balchandra Krishna; merchant princes like the Hon. Vitthaladas Damodar Thakersey, Lalubhai Samal Das, Ibrahim Adamji Perebhai, from Bombay; patriots like Surendra Nath Banerjee and Bhupendra Nath Dasu from Calcutta; and Punjab leaders like Lala Harkisen Lal and Lajpat Rai, from Lahore, and the Hon'ble Krishnasami Iyer and Govindaraghava Iyer, N. Subha Rao and others, from Madras; also Extremist leaders, Messrs. Tilak and Khaparde.

Dr. Ghose arrived, accompanied by Sir Pherozeshah Mehta and other members of the Congress executive, and was welcomed with loud and prolonged cheering, not unmingled with stray shouting of "Shame" from some of the Extremists.

As soon as Dr. Ghose took his seat the Chairman of the Reception Committee (Mr. Thiruvandas Malvi), delivered his address of welcome to the delegates, in the course of which he referred to the great historic antecedents of Surat and its subsequent downfall as a commercial centre, and in consequence, the rise of Bombay. He also dealt with the good work which the Congress had done in the past in the cause of the country, and hoped that it would continue its policy of moderation, loyalty, firmness and unity.

This statement roused the fire of the Extremists, who hissed and cried "No, no" and otherwise attempted to interrupt him whenever they heard him preach moderation.

When he sat down Dewan Bahadur Ambalal Sakar Lal Desai proposed that Dr. Ghose do take the presidential chair, in a short speech in which he extolled his patriotic services, and he, too, was again interrupted by cries of "No, no" from the Extremists.

Then Mr. Surendranath Banerjee rose to address the assembly. It was hoped that he would be able to command the audience with his powerful voice and compelling eloquence; but the moment he uttered the first word the Extremists were determined to give him no chance. The greatest disturbance proceeded from the front rows of the Madras and Deccan blocks of delegates which were nearest the platform, and the rowdy section among the Extremists made a determined effort to obstruct the proceedings. They called loudly for Mr. Tilak and Lajpat Rai, and would have none of Mr. Banerjee; but the Moderates urged him to go on, and he made repeated

attempts to make himself heard, but scarcely a word could be heard above the noisy clamour of the Extremists. They were only about 30, the majority of these coming from Madras. At this stage the Chairman of the Reception Committee, stood up and warned the Extremists that, if they kept up like that, the sitting would be impossible, and he would be compelled to suspend the Congress. Even he was not heard. Mr. Banerjee made another futile attempt and was obliged finally to retire, giving rise to great shouts of triumph on the part of the disturbers.

Meanwhile some parleying went on among the leaders and a movement in the direction of Messrs. Tilak and Khardade was noticed with a view to persuade them to intervene. This attempt was unsuccessful. Either they did not intervene, or only did so in an equivocal manner, so that their following could not understand them. Meanwhile the Bengalis in particular, and the audience in general, resented the insult offered to the great Bengali leader and orator, and would not hear any one in preference to him. The rowdies, however, continued their noisy demonstration and the Chairman was compelled to declare the Congress suspended for the day, and the leaders retired. But for long afterwards the Extremists held possession of the pandal, men of both parties crying "Shame" against each other.

It is obvious that the disturbance during the afternoon was the result of a deliberately preconceived plan of action on the part of the Extremist leaders. These seeing that they and their party were in a hopeless minority were determined not to take defeat on the industrial resolutions before the Congress and so resolved to make the situation impossible at the outset and wreck the Congress. The ostensible pretext of the Extremists in support of their conduct is the alleged omission of the Congress authorities to include resolutions on boycott, swaraj, and national education, which turns out to be absolutely unfounded. A statement denying the rumours set afloat by scheming Extremist leaders was circulated over the signature of the Secretary, but apparently they were spoiling for a split, and they have succeeded in creating an impasse.

Telegraphing on the 27th the same correspondent added.

"Since last night a manifesto has been issued over the signatures of about twenty leading Congressmen of all parts of the country appealing to the delegates. The manifesto is signed for each province by the respective leaders and runs as follows:—

"Babu Surendra Nath Banerjee, who was to second the proposition moved by Dewan Bahadur Amba Lal Sakar Lal Desai, for the election of Dr. Ghose as President of the Congress has been prevented from speaking against the established practice of the Congress and in violation of old traditions. The session of Congress has had to be suspended for the day. If similar obstruction continues it might be necessary to close the session of Congress, a situation which is humiliating for all delegates and an event which will bring disgrace to the country. It is requested that all delegates to the Congress of all shades of opinion will express their differences in a proper constitutional manner, and it is hoped that all will use their influence towards this end."

LATER.

The Congress assembled at 1 p. m., a large number of visitors and delegates were present. The proceedings began where they were left yesterday by voting Dr. Ghose to the Presidential chair. This was supported and declared carried. Dr. Ghose stood up, but before his address began Mr. Tilak went up on the platform. The

audience would not hear him and cried "shame." On confusion then ensued. Mr. Tilak would not leave the platform despite pressing requests from eminent including Dr. Rutherford. Dr. Ghose then proceeded with his address whereupon Mr. Tilak appealed to followers, who were considerably excited and rushed to the platform and attacked every one with sticks with which were armed. The ladies were removed in safety. Confusion still reigns supreme. The police came in and made arrests. The Magistrate of Surat on the afternoon of the 27th, telegraphed to the Government of India that, "Indian National Congress meeting to-day became disorderly blows being exchanged. The President called on the police to clear the house and the grounds which was done. Order now restored. No arrests. No one reported seriously hurt. No further hurt anticipated." As a matter of fact some arrests were made, but the Reception Committee declining to proceed the prisoners were at once released by the police.

The following official statement was issued on the 28th Friday evening by the Hon. Dr. Rash Behari Ghose, President, Mr. Tribhuvandas N. Malvi, Chairman of the Reception Committee, and Mr. D. E. Wacha and Mr. G. K. Gokhale, Joint General Secretaries of the Indian National Congress:—

"The twenty-third Indian National Congress opened yesterday in the Pavilion erected for it by the Reception Committee at Surat at 2-30 P.M. Over sixteen hundred delegates were present. The proceedings began with an address from the Chairman of the Reception

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Committee. After the reading of the address was over Diwan Bahadur Ambalal Sakarjal proposed that the Hon. Dr. Rash Behari Ghose having been nominated by the Reception Committee for the office of President under the rules adopted at the last session of the Congress, he should take the Presidential chair. As soon as the Dewan Bahadur uttered Dr. Ghose's name, some voices were heard in the body of the hall shouting "no, no" and the shouting was kept up for some time. The proposer, however, somehow managed to struggle through his speech; and the Chairman then called upon Babu Surendranath Banerjee to second the proposition. As soon, however, as he began his speech—before he had finished even in his first sentence—a small section of the delegates began an uproar from their seats with the object of preventing Mr. Banerjee from speaking. The Chairman repeatedly appealed for order, but no heed was paid. Every time Mr. Banerjee attempted to go on with his speech he was met by disorderly shouts. It was clear that rowdiness had been determined upon to bring the proceedings to a stand still, and the whole demonstration seemed to have been pre-arranged. Finding it impossible to enforce order, the Chairman warned the House that unless the uproar subsided at once, he would be obliged to suspend the sitting of the Congress. The hostile demonstration, however, continued and the Chairman at last suspended the sitting for the day.

The Congress again met to day at 1 P.M., due notice of the meeting having been sent round. As the President-elect was being escorted in procession through the Hall to the platform, an overwhelming majority of the delegates present greeted him with a most enthusiastic welcome, thereby showing how thoroughly they disapproved the organised disorder of yesterday. As this

procession was entering the Hall a small slip of paper written in pencil and bearing Mr. B. G. Tilak's signature was put by a volunteer into the hands of Mr. Malvi, the Chairman of the Reception Committee. It was a notice to the Chairman that after Mr. Banerjee's speech, seconding the proposition about the President was concluded, Mr. Tilak wanted to move "an amendment for an adjournment of the Congress." The Chairman considered a notice of adjournment at that stage to be irregular and out of order. The proceedings were then resumed at the point at which they had been interrupted yesterday, and Mr. Surendranath Banerjee was called upon to conclude his speech. Mr. Banerjee having done this, the Chairman called upon Pandit Motilal Nehru of Allahabad to support the motion. The Pandit supported it in a brief speech and then the Chairman put the motion to the vote. An overwhelming majority of the delegates signified their assent by crying "all, all" and a small minority shouted "no, no." The Chairman thereupon declared the motion carried and the Hon. Dr. Ghose was installed in the Presidential chair amidst loud and prolonged applause. While the applause was going on, and as Dr. Ghose rose to begin his address, Mr. Tilak came upon the platform and stood in front of the President. He urged that as he had given notice of an "amendment to the Presidential election," he should be permitted to move his amendment. Thereupon, it was pointed out to him by Mr. Malvi, the Chairman of the Reception Committee that his notice was not for "an amendment to the Presidential election," but it was for "an adjournment of the Congress," which notice he had considered to be irregular and out of order at that stage, and that the President having been duly installed in the chair no amendment about his election could be then moved. Mr.

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Tilak then turned to the President and began arguing with him. Dr. Ghose in his turn, stated how matters stood and ruled that his request to move an amendment about the election could not be entertained. Mr. Tilak thereupon said, "I will not submit to this. I will now appeal from the President to the delegates." In the meantime an uproar had already been commenced by some of his followers, and the President who tried to read his address could not be heard even by those who were seated next to him. Mr. Tilak with his back to the President, kept shouting that he insisted on moving his amendment and he would not allow the proceedings to go on. The President repeatedly appealed to him to be satisfied with his protest and to resume his seat. Mr. Tilak kept on shouting frantically, exclaiming that he would not go back to his seat unless he was "bodily removed." This persistent defiance of the authority of the chair provoked a hostile demonstration against Mr. Tilak himself and for some time, nothing but loud cries of "Shame, Shame" could be heard in the Pandit. It had been noticed, that when Mr. Tilak was making his way to the platform some of his followers were also trying to force themselves through the volunteers to the platform with sticks in their hands. All attempts on the President's part either to proceed with the reading of his address or to persuade Mr. Tilak to resume his seat having failed, and a general movement among Mr. Tilak's followers to rush the platform with sticks in their hands being noticed, the President, for the last time, called upon Mr. Tilak to withdraw and formally announced to the assembly that he had ruled and he still ruled Mr. Tilak out of order, and he called upon him to resume his seat. Mr. Tilak refused to obey and at this time a shoe hurled from the body of the Hall, struck both Sir Pherozeshah Mehta and Mr. Surendranath Banerjee who were sitting side by side. Chairs were also hurled towards the platform and it was seen that Mr. Tilak's followers who were brandishing their sticks wildly were trying to rush the platform which other delegates were endeavouring to prevent. It should be stated here that some of the delegates were so exasperated by Mr. Tilak's conduct that they repeatedly asked for permission to eject him bodily from the hall; but this permission was steadily refused. The President, finding that the disorder went on growing and that he had no other course open to him, declared the session of the 23rd Indian National Congress suspended *sine die*. After the lady-delegates present on the platform had been escorted to the tents outside, the other delegates began with difficulty to disperse, but the disorder, having grown wilder, the Police eventually came in and ordered the Hall to be cleared."

The heavy Deccan shoe which hit Sir Pherozshah Mehta and Mr. Surendranath Bannerjee may be still in the possession of the latter and if its fellow could be found it might well have been preserved by the former also, and both might have left them either as a trophy or as a memento from their countrymen for their lifelong services to the country. On the evening of the 26th the bulk of the Bengal delegates issued a manifesto protesting against the proceedings of the day and the insult so gratuitously offered to Mr. Bannerjee; while the leading delegates from all the provinces belonging to the moderate camp issued an ap-

peal to all the delegates imploring them to use their influence to effect a settlement and avert a catastrophe. But all was in vain: the Congress was broken up. Statements and counter-statements were subsequently issued by both sides each presenting its own view of the case, for a better understanding and fair judgment on the merits of which all these papers are published in an appendix.

On the evening of the 27th after the Congress was suspended *sine die*, the leading delegates met and discussed the situation and on the 28th nearly 900 of the delegates in the presence of a large number of visitors, who had been greatly excited over the disorderly proceedings of the previous day, again met in the Congress pavilion and adopted a manifesto calling upon the country to subscribe to an article and revive the Congress under a convention. A committee was formed to frame a well-defined constitution for the Congress and it was decided that this committee should meet at Allahabad in April next. After this a few speeches were made by some of the prominent speakers present for the satisfaction of

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the Surat people and with a view to alleviate to some extent the grievous disappointment and mortification of the Reception Committee who had worked so hard and incurred so much expense for the session ; but no business of the Congress was or could be transacted and the meeting dispersed in solemn silence as on a mournful occasion.

Thus ended the Twenty-Third Session of the Indian National Congress which had promised to be one of the most brilliant sessions of the National Assembly. The Anglo-Indian Press of the time while generally deploring the incident could ill-disguise its secret satisfaction at the threatened collapse of the national movement. One paper used the incident as a most powerful argument, as it thought, for its invincible contention that the Indians were unfit for representative institutions and that if the Indian Legislative Councils were made elective they would soon be converted into so many bear-gardens, conveniently forgetting of course that even graver incidents not infrequently occurred in the British House of Commons and the French Chamber of Deputies, although

these two were the highest exponents of democratic evolution in modern European civilization. The great Liberal organ of the *London Daily News*, however, with its characteristic firmness and frankness observed, that it "hoped that the fiasco at Surat may do good, and that the failure of the Moderates was due to the slow pace and grudging scope of British reforms," and it urged the "adoption of a policy of restoring faith in British wisdom and justice." In closing this lamentable incident it should however be remarked, whether it is very material or not, that there seemed to have arisen considerable *bonâ-fide* misapprehension either on the one side or the other as regards the actual purport of Mr. Tilak's missing slip to the Chairman of the Reception Committee, and that however deplorable the action of the rowdies was and however mistaken Mr. Tilak may have been in assuming the attitude which he ultimately did assume on the platform, it is hardly conceivable that a man of Bal Gangadhar Tilak's position and patriotism could have knowingly and willingly associated himself with any plan of action calculated to wreck the

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MR. GOKHALE IN SOUTH AFRICA, 1912.

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A TRIBUTE TO MR. GOKHALE BY SIR VALENTINE CHIROL.

HAVING been thrown during the last few years into close contact with the late Mr. Gokhale I hope you will allow me, through the medium of your columns so widely read by his Indian friends, to add my own expression of personal loss to the tribute of sorrowing affection which his death has deservedly called forth throughout India.

Though I had seen something of Mr. Gokhale during previous journeys to India it is to a visit which I was privileged to pay him at the Servants of India House at Poona about five years ago that I date back the beginning of the more intimate acquaintance which gradually ripened, I like to think on both sides, into genuine friendship. He explained to me on that occasion with all his own persuasive fervour the purpose he had in view in founding the Society of the Friends of India, the fine ideals of voluntary and selfless service it was designed to foster, the work of social reclamation to which its members were being trained; he showed me over the whole institution; he gave me an opportunity of conversing with some of his fellow-workers and disciples. I carried away with me a profound impression of the founder's inspiring personality and of the vast potential influence for good which the Society was bound to exercise if it remained true to his ideals and he, I think, realised and appreciated the strong appeal made to me by the creation of so powerful an agency for the promotion of social progress.

The position of British Indians in our Self-governing Dominions was another question which drew us together, and I am happy to think I was able to render him some little service in connexion with his memorable visit to South Africa. Before he left England for Cape Town, I induced him and Sir Starr Jameson, the leader of the Unionist

Party in the South African Parliament, to meet at my house. On both sides the meeting made a most favourable impression, more favourable, I may perhaps say, than either of them had been disposed to anticipate. Sir Starr Jameson wrote out to his political friends explaining to them what Mr. Gokhale had in view, and thus prepared the way for the cordial welcome and judicious assistance which, as he gratefully recognised, he received throughout his stay in South Africa, from the chief members of the Unionist Party and the leading organs of English public opinion. I can testify, from letters which I in turn received from my own friends out there, how largely Mr. Gokhale contributed to remove many previous misconceptions by his unfailing tact and statesman-like moderation, and to pave the way for the settlement which ultimately ensued, though only after a further deplorable crisis that might have been altogether avoided, had his wise counsels at once prevailed.

It would be premature for me to say anything at present about the work of the Royal Commission on the Indian Public Services, on which I had the honour of being one of his colleagues. I am the only one of his European colleagues now in India but I am sure they would all bear me out in deploring as irreparable the loss which his death has inflicted upon us. For myself I can say quite frankly that even if there were points on which we might not have ultimately reached unanimity, I would much rather have had his opinions recorded in a definite though adverse form than that we should be deprived of their final expression. None brought more earnestness and ability to the defence of his own views; none was at the same time more anxious to preserve harmony and goodwill throughout our deliberations.

Heavily handicapped by ill-health, he persevered in his task with unbroken courage and patience. So great was his fortitude and so wonderful were his powers of recuperation that, though we knew his tenure of life to be precarious, we somehow never ceased to rely upon his being with us till the end of our labours.

Only two or three days before his death I received a very kind letter from him saying that he was coming up to Delhi and hoped to see me on the very day on which, as fate would have it, I was to hear the Viceroy pay an eloquent tribute to his memory in the Imperial Council to whose proceedings he had so often lent dignity and weight.

Mr. Gokhale and I often differed, and probably should have continued to differ on many political questions, but I believe I may safely assert that such differences never impaired the friendliness of our personal relations so that he generously appreciated and reciprocated the high regard I had for him. I shall at any rate always be proud to remember the proof of personal confidence which he gave me less than a year ago when on receiving the offer of a K.C.I.E. he did me the honour of coming at once to me and asking me for my advice. I gave it to him in all sincerity,

though with genuine regret. In any other circumstances, he need not, I thought, have hesitated for a moment to accept an honour which his services to the Empire in connexion with the South African question would alone have abundantly sufficed to justify. But his acceptance of it, whilst he was serving on a Royal Commission which dealt with such highly controversial questions, would, I feared, be liable to misconstruction in certain quarters in India which, however, unwarrantable and ignorant, might tend to weaken his position. That such fears were not altogether groundless has been shown by the virulent attacks made upon him only the other day in connexion with his controversy with Mr. Tilak—attacks of which the rancour saddened if it did not, as some of his friends tell me, actually hasten his end. Other arguments besides those which I used, and his own love of simplicity in all externals, no doubt contributed also to make him decline the distinction which had been offered him. But he warmly appreciated the sincerity of my advice, and I could not alas! tell him how reluctantly I had given it, for the fear was then present in my mind, as I believe it was in the minds of those who made him the offer, that he might not live long enough for the offer to be renewed to him.

Reminiscences of Mr. Gokhale

BY MRS. SAROJINI NAIDU.

[Soon after the lamented demise of Mr. Gokhale, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, the distinguished Indian poetess wrote in the columns of the *Bombay Chronicle* a characteristic appreciation of the man and his mission. Mrs. Sarojini had ample opportunities to know Mr. Gokhale, and her reminiscences of the great leader, which we publish below with her permission, will be read with considerable interest.—Ed *I.R.*]

My personal association with Mr. Gokhale commenced, as it ended, with a written message. It had fallen to me to propose the resolution on the education of women at the Calcutta Sessions of the All-India Social Conference of 1906; and something in my speech moved him sufficiently to pass me the hurried and cordial sentences which, unworthy as I know myself of such generous appreciation, I venture to transcribe, since they struck the keynote of all our future intercourse. "May I take the liberty," he wrote, "to offer you my most respectful and enthusiastic congratulations? Your speech was more than an intellectual treat of the highest order. . . . We all felt for the moment to be lifted to a higher plane."

An acquaintance began on such a happy note of sympathy, grew and ripened at the last into a close and lovely comradeship which I counted among the crowning honours of my life. And though it was not without its poignant moments of brief and bitter estrangement, our friendship was always radiant, both with the joy of spiritual refreshment, and the quickening challenge of

intellectual discussion and dissent. Above all, there was the over-deepening bond of our common love for the motherland; and, for a short space, there was alone the added tie of a tender dependence, so flintely touching and child-like, on such comfort and companionship as I, with my own broken health, could render him through long weeks of suffering and distress in a foreign land.

Between 1907 and 1911, it was my good fortune to meet him several times, chiefly during my flying visits to Bombay, but also on different occasions, in Madras, Poona and Delhi. After each meeting, I would always carry away the memory of some fervent and stirring word of exhortation to yield my life to the service of India. And, even in the midst of the crowded activities of those epoch-making years, he found leisure to send me, now and then, a warm message of approval, of encouragement, when any poem or speech or action of mine seemed to please him or the frequent rumours of my failing health caused him anxiety or alarm.

But it was not till the beginning of 1912, when I spent a few weeks in Calcutta with my father, that any rea-

intimacy was established between us. "Hitherto I have always caught you on the wing," he said, "now I will cage you long enough to grasp your true spirit." It was in the course of the long and delightful conversations of this period that I began to comprehend the intrinsic and versatile greatness of the man, and to marvel by what austere and fruitful process he was able to reconcile and assimilate the complex and often conflicting qualities of his essentially dual personality into so supreme an achievement of single-hearted patriotism. It was to me, a valuable lesson in human psychology to study the secret of this rich and paradoxical nature. There was the outer man as the world knew and esteemed him, with his precise and brilliant and subtle intellect, his unrivalled gifts of political analysis and synthesis, his flawless and relentless mastery and use of the consummate logic of co-ordinated facts and figures, his courteous but inexorable candour in opposition, his patient dignity and courage in honourable compromise, the breadth and restraint, the vigour and veracity of his far-reaching statesmanship, the lofty simplicities and sacrifices of his daily life. And breaking through the veils of his many self-repressions, was the inner man that revealed himself to me, in all his intense impassioned hunger for human kinship and affection, in all the tumult and longing, the agony of doubt and ecstasy of faith of the born idealist, perpetually seeking some unchanging reality in a world full of shifting disillusion and despair. In him, I felt that both the practical, strenuous worker and the mystic dreamer of dreams were harmonised by the age-long discipline of his Brahminical ancestry which centuries before had evolved the spirit of the Bhagvat Gita and defined true Yoga as Wisdom in Action. But even he could not escape the limitations of his inheritance. Wide and just as were his recognitions of all human claims to equality, he had nevertheless hidden away, perhaps unsuspected, something of that conservative pride of his Brahminical descent which instinctively resented the least question of its ancient monopoly of power. One little instance of this weakness—if I may use the word—occurs to me. At the All-India Conference which was held in Calcutta at the end of 1911, in the course of an address on the so-called Depressed Classes, I happened to have remarked that the denial of their equal human rights and opportunities of life was largely due to the tyranny of arrogant Brahmins in the past. My father who was also present at the meeting, noted and ironically rallied me on the phrase which appealed to both his sense of humour and equity. But, to my surprise, I found that Mr. Gokhale regarded the word 'arrogant' almost as a personal affront! "It was no doubt a brave and beautiful speech," he said in a tone of reproach, "but you sometimes use harsh, bold phrases." Soon after, discussing an allied topic, he burst out saying "You—in spite of yourself—you are typically Hindu in spirit. You begin with a ripple and end in eternity." "But," I answered, a little nettled, "when have I ever disclaimed my heritage?" Another conversation of these weeks stands out with special significance in the light of coming events. One morning, a little despondent and sick at heart about national affairs in general, he suddenly asked me "what is your outlook for India?" "One of Hope," I replied. "What is your vision of the immediate future?" "The Hindu-Muslim Unity in less than five years," I told him with joyous conviction. "Child," he said, with a note of yearning sadness in his voice, "you are a poet, but you hope too

much. It will not come in your lifetime or in mine. But keep your faith and work if you can." In March of the following year, I met him for a few minutes only at a large party in Bombay given by Sir Pherozeshah Mehta for the member of the Royal Commission. I had recently brought out a new book of verses which just then happily for me was attracting some attention and applause. And Mr. Gokhale's short conversation with me was very characteristic of his attitude of distrust towards such things. "Does the flame still burn brightly?" he questioned. "Brighter than ever," I answered. But he shook his head doubtfully and a little sternly. "I wonder," he numbered, "I wonder how the storm of such long duration will withstand excessive adulation and success."

A week later, it was my unique privilege to attend and address the new historic sessions of the Muslim League which met in Lucknow on the 22nd March to adopt a new Constitution which sounded the keynote of loyal co-operation with the sister community in all matters of national welfare and progress. The unanimous acclamation with which it was carried by both the older and younger schools of Mussulman politicians marked a new era and inaugurated a new standard in the history of modern Indian affairs. From Lucknow I travelled, almost without a break direct to Poona, where I was due on the 25th, and on the morning of the 26th, I walked across with the Hon. Mr. Paranjpye from Fergusson College to the Servants of India Society. I found the world-famous leader of the National Indian Congress weak and suffering from a relapse of his old illness, but busy scanning the journals that were full of comments and criticisms of the Muslim League and its new ideals. "Ah," he cried with outstretched hands when he saw me, "have you come to tell me that your vision was true?" "....." and he began to question me over and over again with a breath eagerness that seemed almost impatient of my words about the real underlying spirit of the Conference. His weary and pain worn face lighted up with pleasure when I assured him that, so far at least as the younger men were concerned, it was not an instinct of mere political expediency but one of genuine conviction and a growing consciousness of wider and graver national responsibility that had prompted them to stretch out so frankly and generously, the hand of good fellowship to the Hindus, and I hoped that the coming Congress would respond to it with equal, if not even greater, cordiality. "So far as it lies in my power," he answered, "it shall be done." After an hour or so I found him exhausted with the excitement of the happy news I had brought him from so far! but he insisted on my returning to complete my visit to him that afternoon. When I went back to the Servants of India Society in the evening, I found a strangely transformed Mr. Gokhale, brisk and smiling, a little pale, but without any trace of the morning's languor and depression. "What," I almost screamed as he was preparing to lead the way upstairs, "surely you cannot mean to mount all those steps, you are too ill." He laughed, "you have put new hope into me," he said, "I feel strong enough to face life and work again." Presently, his sister and two charming daughters joined us for half an hour on the broad terrace with its peaceful view over sunset hills and valleys and we talked of pleasant and passing things. This was my first and only glimpse and realization of the personal domestic side of this lonely and impersonal worker. After their departure we sat quietly in the gathering twilight till his golden voice, stirred by some deep emotion, broke the silence wi

golden words of counsel and admonition, so grand, so solemn and so inspiring, that they have never ceased to thrill me. He spoke of the unequalled happiness and privilege of service for India. "Stand here with me," he said, "with the stars and hills for witnesses and in their presence concentrate your life and your talent, your song and your speech, your thought and your dream to the motherland. O poet, see visions from the hilltops and spread abroad the message of hope to the toilers in the valleys." As I took my leave of him, he said again to this humble messenger of happy tidings: "You have given me new hope, new faith, new courage. To-night I shall rest. I shall sleep with a heart at peace."

Two months later, early in June after an absence of fifteen years, I found myself in London once more and among the many friends who greeted me on my arrival was the familiar figure of Mr. Gokhale in wholly unfamiliar European garments and—yes—actually an English top hat. I stared at him for a moment. "Where," I asked him, "is your rebellious turban." But I soon got accustomed to this new phase of my old friend to a social Gokhale who attended parties and frequented theatres, played bridge and entertained ladies at dinner on the terrace of the National Liberal Club, a far cry from the terrace of the Servants of India Society.

In spite of his uncertain health, he was very busy throughout the summer with his work on the Royal Commission and his anxious pre-occupations with Indian affairs in South Africa, then threatening an acute crisis. But he would often come to see me where I was staying at the house of Sir Krishna Gupta. Mr. Gokhale had a great fancy for cherries, and I always took care to provide a liberal supply whenever he was expected. "Every man has his price," I would tease him, "and yours is—cherries." One day, at the end of July, sitting over a dish of ripe red cherries, I broached the subject of a delicate mission which I had undertaken on behalf of the London Indian Association, a new student organization that had been only a few weeks previously founded by Mr. M. A. Jinnah with the active and eager support of Indian students in London. Their earnest endeavour was to provide a permanent centre to focus the scattered student life in London and to build up such staunch tradition of co-operation and fellowship that this young association might eventually grow into a perfect miniature and model of the federated India of the future, the India of their dreams: and it was their ardent desire to start on their new mission of service with a word of sympathy and blessing from this incomparable friend and servant of India. At first a firm refusal of my request backed by the strict prohibition of his doctors of all undue strain and fatigue somewhat daunted me. But I had a little rashly more or less pledged my word that he would speak, and I redoubled my persuasions. "You not only defy all laws of health yourself," he grumbled, "but incite me also to disobedience and revolt." "Besides"—and his eyes flashed for a moment, "what right had you to pledge your word for me?" "The right," I told him, "to demand from you at all costs a message of hope for the young generation." A few days later, on the 2nd August, he delivered a magnificent inaugural address at Caxton Hall in the presence of a large and enthusiastic audience of students, and set before them those sublime lessons of patriotism and self-sacrifice which he alone so signally, among the men of his

generation, was competent to teach with authority and grace.

Shortly afterwards he left for India to wage his brave and glorious battle in the cause of his suffering compatriots in South Africa. And though now his health was finally ruined beyond all chance of recovery, it was with the rapture of victorious martyrdom that he wrote from his sick-bed, about the end of December, to tell me how prompt and splendid had been the response of a truly United India to the call of her gallant heroes fighting for right and justice in a far-off land.

On his return to England in the spring of 1914, his condition was so precarious as to cause his friends and physicians the gravest concern; and at first he was confined entirely to bed. But with his ever-gracious kindness towards me, he paid me a visit on the very day he was permitted to leave his room, as I was then too ill to go and see him. "Why should a song-bird like you have a broken wing," he murmured a little sadly; and presently, told me that he had just received his own death warrant at the hands of his doctors. "With the utmost care," he said, "they think, I might perhaps live for three years longer." But, in his calm and thoughtful manner there was no sign of selfish rebellion or fear,—only an infinite regret for his unfinished service to India.

But soon, I was well enough to accompany him on the short motor drives that were his sole form of recreation; and on mild days, as we sat in the soft sunshine under the budding trees of Kensington Gardens he would talk to me with that sure instinct of his for choice and graphic phrases that lent his conversation so much distinction and charm. "Give me a corner of your brain that I can call my own," he would say. And in that special corner that was his I treasure many memorable sayings. I learnt to wonder not merely at the range and variety of his culture but at his fastidious preferences for what Charles Lamb has called the delicacies of fine literature. He had also an almost romantic curiosity towards the larger aspect of life and death and destiny and a quick apprehension of the mysterious forces that govern the main springs of human feeling and experience. One day, a little wistfully he said, "Do you know, I feel that an abiding sadness underlies all that unfailing brightness of yours. Is it because you have come so near death that its shadows still cling to you?" "No," I answered, "I have come so near life that its fires have burnt me." But like a homing bird, his heart would always return with swift and certain flight to the one immutable passion of his life, his love for that India, which to him was mistress and mother, goddess and child in one. He would speak of the struggles and disappointments of his early days, the triumphs and failures, the rewards and renunciations of his later years, his vision of India and her ultimate goal, her immediate value as an Imperial asset, and her appointed place and purpose in the wider counsels and responsibilities of the Empire. He spoke too of his work and his colleagues, the Royal Commission, the Viceroyal Council and the National Congress; and though to the end he remained a better judge of human situation rather than of individuals, I was struck with the essential fairness of his estimates which seemed in one luminous phrase to reveal the true measure of a man. Of one, he said that "He can mould heroes out of common clay," of another that "He has fine sincerity a little marred by hasty judgment," of yet another "He has true stuff in him and that freedom from all sectarian

prejudice which will make him the best ambassador of the Hindu-Muslim unity." Of a fourth "He has made those sacrifices which entitle him to be heard."

Of the many pressing matters that occupied his mind at that time, there were four which to him were of absorbing interest. His scheme for compulsory education which, he felt, was the only solid basis on which to found any lasting national progress; the Hindu-Muslim question which, he said, could be most effectively solved if the leaders of the sister communities would deal in a spirit of perfect unison with certain fundamental problems of equal and urgent importance to both the high privilege and heavy responsibility of the young generation whose junction it was to grapple with more immense and vital issues than his generation had been called upon to face; and of course, the future of the Servants of India Society, which was the actual embodiment of all his dreams and devotion for India.

These open-air conversations, however, came to a speedy end. He suddenly grew worse and was forbidden to leave his room or to receive visitors. But I was fortunate enough to be allowed to see him almost daily for a few hours till his departure to Vichy. In his whimsical way he would call me the best of all his prescriptions. To my usual query on crossing the threshold of his sick-room—"Well; am I to be a stimulant or a sedative to-day?", his invariable reply was "Both." And this one word most adequately summed up the need of his sinking heart and overburdened brain through these anxious and critical weeks.

The interval between his first and second visits to Vichy he spent in a quiet little cottage at Twickenham as the guest and neighbour of Mr. and Mrs. Ratan Tata, to whom the nation already owes so many debts of gratitude, and the monotony of the long hours of his temporary and interrupted convalescence was often brightened by the presence of friends whose visits to him were really pilgrimages, and sustained by the devoted attendance of Dr. Jivraj Mehta who has since won such proud academic honours, and of whom Mr. Gokhale more than once said, "He will go far and be a leader of men."

From Vichy he wrote, "Here, in this intense mental solitude, I have come upon the bedrock truths of life and must learn to adjust myself to their demands." The outbreak of war in August brought him back to England a little prematurely. But though his health had obviously improved, and he was better able to stand the strain of his arduous work on the Royal Commission, he seemed oppressed with a sharp and sudden sense of exile in the midst of an alien civilization and people. He was haunted by a deep nostalgia which he himself could not explain, not merely for the wonted physical scenes and surroundings but for the spiritual texts and tongues of his ancestral land. His conversation during these days was steeped in allusions to the old Sanskrit writers whose mighty music was in his very blood.

The last occasion on which I saw him was on the 8th October, two days before I sailed for India. Something, may be, of the autumnal sadness of fallen leaves and growing mists had passed into his mood; or, may be, he felt the foreshadowing of the wings of Death. But as he bade me farewell, he said, "I do not think we shall meet again. If you live, remember your life is dedicated to the service of the country. My work is done."

Early in December shortly after his arrival from Europe, he wrote to complain of the "sourvy trick" fate had played him in a renewal of his old trouble but succeeding letters reported returning strength and ability to work again. In the last letter written the day before his fatal illness he spoke of his health being now stationary and of his coming visit to Delhi. But it was otherwise ordained. As the poet says, "True as the peach to its ripening taste is destiny to her hour." His predestined hour had already struck. On the 19th February, the self-same stars that he had invoked one year ago to witness the consecration of a life to the service of India kept vigil over the passing of this great saint and soldier of the national righteousness. And of him surely, in another age and in another land were the prophetic words uttered—"Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends."

READY SHORTLY.

GOKHALE'S SPEECHES AND WRITINGS.

In accordance with the permission given by the Hon. Mr. Gokhale a few weeks before his death Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., Publishers, Madras, will issue shortly an authorised and up-to-date edition of his speeches and writings. Every attempt will be made to make the collection comprehensive and exhaustive. The book which will contain several portraits of Mr. Gokhale will be in crown octavo size, printed on feather weight paper and priced at Rupees Three per copy. Subscribers of the *Indian Review*, can have it at Rs. 2-8.

The volume will include the full text of all his Budget Speeches in the Viceroy's Council and a selection of other important speeches before the same. (2) Selections from those delivered in the Bombay Legislative Council. (3) Selections from his speeches delivered before various sittings of the Indian National Congress, including the full text of his Presidential Address at the Benares Congress. (4) Selections from the speeches delivered in England during his trips. (5) His appreciations of Ranade, W. C. Bonnerji, Dadabhai, Sir P. M. Mehta, and others. (6) A few select papers from the *Journal of the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha*. (7) His parting speech at the Ferguson College, etc., etc. Every attempt will be made to make the collection as exhaustive and comprehensive as possible. The book will contain a lengthy account of his life and several portraits of him and of his Guru, the late Mahadev Govinda Ranade, and several others. Price Rs. Three. To Subscribers of the *Indian Review*, Rs. 2-8.

G. A. NATESAN & CO., BOOKSELLERS, 4, SUNKURAMA CHETTY STREET, MADRAS.

MR. GOKHALE: A CHAPLET OF EULOGY.

The premature and untimely death of Mr. Gokhale has evoked many a touching tribute from several of his English friends and some well known workers of the Indian cause in England. Sir William Wedderburn who had almost a parental affection for Mr. Gokhale writes a touching notice of his remarkable career in the columns of the *London Daily News and Leader*. Mr. H. W. Nevinson, the famous journalist and Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, Mr. Gokhale's colleague on the Public Services Commission, pay their tributes in the columns of the *Nation*, and there is a regular chaplet of eulogy in the well known Congress organ *Indu* from Mr. Gokhale's many friends and admirers.

SIR WILLIAM WEDDERBURN, BART.

He was endeared to all who knew him for his saintly character, and he was revered for the power of his intellect, standing before the world as the finest type of the Indian sage. But besides all personal feeling, and looking to the future of India, his loss at this critical time cannot be over-estimated; for he enjoyed as no other living person enjoys the combined confidence of thinking minds in India and in England. He was a link of true metal uniting the East and the West.

* * * * *

But perhaps the undertaking which more than any other will perpetuate his work and influence was the foundation ten years ago of "The Servants of India Society." Believing in the nobility of human endeavour, and that he that would be the greatest should be the servant of all, he gathered around him a band of young men, who lived the simple life under his tutelage in the Society's home near Poona, and whom he trained to devote themselves whole-heartedly to the service of Mother India. * * * Suffering from the pain of so sudden a personal grief, these hurried lines are all that I can, at the moment, write regarding my friend. In saying good-bye last September, he doubted whether he would again see England or again shake me by the hand. In one respect his expressed wish was fulfilled, for he has died at home, in his own country in the loving presence of his family and the friends of his youth.

SIR HENRY COTTON, K.C.S.I.

I do not forget the innumerable spheres of labour Mr. Gokhale prescribed for himself, and how he toiled on behalf of education in India and of his fellow-countrymen in South Africa. But I prefer to dwell on the personal character of the man and on the noble features of his private life. Above all, I wish to render my tribute to his sympathetic nature, his self-sacrificing disposition, the exceptional integrity of his conduct on all occasions and in all affairs, and the honour and chivalry of his life's work.

THE RIGHT HON. SYED AMEER ALI.

I found in him a man of strong convictions, courageous in their expression, at the same time willing to discuss and give a reasonable hearing to other and divergent views. There are so few men in India of his calibre that his death means a real loss to the country.

THE RT. HON. LORD REAY, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.

(Late Governor of Bombay.)

With deep regret I have heard of the death of Mr. Gokhale, for whom I had the greatest regard. He devoted his life to the service of Indian interests with great self-sacrifice and single-mindedness. His counsel was always of great value, and his sagacity led him to take a just and moderate view of the problems which the Government of India has to solve. The loss of such a man must be felt in many directions and his memory cannot fail to be held in honour by all who came in contact with him.

SIR GEORGE BIRDWOOD, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

The "Chitpavans" are born statesmen, as well as -- so far as race goes -- pure Brahmans, and because of this I always kept my eye on Mr. Gokhale from his first appearance in public life in Bombay; and when I came to know him, on his arrival in England in 1897, and found that he was up to the high standard of his race, in virility and intellectual force, I was at once filled with admiration of him, and, I may add, quite brotherly affection.

I found that he was no self-seeking politician, but a statesman by natural instinct. He was quite indifferent to popular support and favour, provided he was satisfied that he was serving the best interests of India. He never stooped to the flattering of friends or foes. His words never went beyond his deeds: while his deeds always answered to his words. He was also, in his private character, the most lovable and charming of men; and his death is in every way an incalculable loss. But his example will live for ever; and, so long as his successors are true to it, will prove an enduring blessing to Shri Bharata.

SIR KRISHNA GUPTA, K.C.S.I.

In ability, in eloquence, in mastery of detail and in lucidity and cogency of argument he was second to none; but the great secret of his success was perhaps his transparent sincerity, his singleness of purpose, and above all, his saintly character.

MR. CHARLES ROBERTS, M.P.

(Under Secretary of State for India.)

No one could fail to be struck by the force and insight, the comprehensive grasp and the practical moderation of his mind, and his early death is widely felt to be a disaster not only in India, but in England.

MR. H. W. NEVINSON.

What he said of Ranade was true of himself: 'It was as though the first person singular did not exist in his vocabulary. But however quiet his speech, the courage of unyielding conviction and of that regardlessness of self or fortune or applause was always felt behind it. It needs some bravery to continue insisting on the same cause year after year with hardly any apparent result. And perhaps it needs even more to protest against a burning national injustice before a council of officials who stare coldly or write letters, and then, year after year, proceed to the next business as though nothing had been said.'

Courage underlying a sweet reasonableness was the characteristic of the man and of his speaking. It made him a speaker of singular attraction and lucidity. But he was never satisfied with words. He knew how easily reformers are beguiled into believing that when speeches have been made, something has been accomplished. He knew that speeches accomplish nothing unless action follows, and with this knowledge he founded the 'Servants of India.' In their monastic home, close beside the Fergusson College, he was living with about a dozen other Knights of the Spirit, all bound by vows to earn no money for themselves, to regard all Indians as brothers without distinction of caste or creed, to engage in no personal quarrel, and to devote themselves to India. The novitiate lasted five years, and for two of those years they wandered through India, like Sanyasis, to learn the needs of the people at first hand. Like Gokhale himself, they were, in fact, Sanyas's, or ascetic pilgrims, of politics. Political enfranchisement was their ultimate aim. Before it could be secured, they knew that the people of India must be released from much of the bondage they have laid on themselves—the harassing ritual, immature marriage, the exclusion from life's decencies of some fifty million pariahs who eat dead animals and think it a mortal sin if their shadow touches a Brahman. Besides there was ordinary education, for which the Government at that time made hardly any grant, though only one male in ten could read, and only seven females in a thousand.

Courage, self-assertion, and discipline in public life were the qualities which he found wanting and which he hoped to develop through the Congress and such missionary means as his Order of Servants. The last time I saw him he was hoping that the service of Indian troops would raise the position of the whole people in English eyes. In spite of failing health and many disappointments, I always found him the same in reasonable mood and courtesy—always the same in accurate knowledge and lucidity of statement. I think he had the most statesmanlike mind I have known, and certainly the most sweetly reasonable nature unless Canon Barnett, whom he much resembled, equalled him. But I best like to remember him standing on that platform at Surat and stretching out both arms to shelter his rival and enemy, Mr. Tilak, from the assaults of Constitutional Congressmen, whilst the huge pavilion roared with the chaos of 10,000 white and orange forms in strife, and Extremists danced upon the table, striking with long staves at any head which looked Moderate. When Mr. Tilak was released last year from six years' imprisonment for seditious publication, Gokhale, I am told, exclaimed, 'Poor man! He has suffered for our country'; and now we read that Mr. Tilak spoke in his praise at the cremation.

PROFESSOR H. A. L. FISHER.

(Member of the Public Service Commission.)

In talent and character he was extraordinary, combining in a singular degree the visionary qualities of the Indian saint with the dexterity and perspective of Western public life. Even in India, where saints are not uncommon, Gokhale's saintliness shone with a peculiar lustre; for not only was he utterly disinterested in his pursuit of patriotic ends, caring nothing for wealth or station, but his rare spiritual intensity was united to a subtlety of mind, a quick grasp of practical detail, and a gift for action, qualities not usually associated with the devotional temperament of the East. That he was a great orator I can well believe, for his use of English was exact and brilliant and entirely free from the redundancy and magniloquence which is sometimes imputed to Indian eloquence. As a member of a Royal Commission, he always knew what he wanted to get from a witness, and, in a few terse and apposite questions, generally managed to get it. Though his training had been mathematical, he was well-read in modern historical and political literature, and had collected at Poona an excellent library, centred round the nationalist idea, to the study of which he was wont to dedicate some part of every year. Yet neither in learning nor in the conduct of affairs had he any touch of pedantry. He could distinguish a big issue from a small one, and was ready to jettison unessential things, if by concession he might achieve the larger objects which he had in view.

SIR HERBERT ROBERTS, *Barl.*, M.P.

First, Mr. Gokhale was a man of rare intellectual gifts. His work as a member of the Viceroy's Council disclosed a mind able not only to unravel intricate financial problems, but also to grasp the larger aspects of general policy. Again, his knowledge of the conditions and needs of India, of her real life and spirit, was probably unique. Add to this the influence of a personality of exceptional charm, absolute simplicity and self-surrender, combined with qualities of undaunted courage and determination at any cost to act in accordance with the principles which dominated his whole career. * * * He won the confidence and respect of succeeding Viceroys in India and of Secretaries of State at home, and I venture to affirm that few more remarkable instances can be found of the power of one striking personality upon the development of an Imperial issue of first magnitude than that of the great man whose loss we sorrowfully mourn to-day. Assuredly, though dead, he will yet speak in the coming now and better day of India.

SIR THEODORE MORISON, K.C.I.E.

My mind goes back to the days when we first met as Additional Members of Lord Curzon's Council. I soon conceived not only a great respect but also a regard for him. * * * The last talks I had with him were after the war had broken out, and I think that the feeling which was then uppermost in his mind was that that England was in danger, and that the hegemony of the world might pass to a power which despised her ideals and her theories of Government. That to him would have been a cataclysm of all his hopes for India and for the world, and I am convinced his loyalty to the Empire in this great crisis was no passing emotion but the expression of his most abiding convictions.

MIRZA ABBAS ALI BAIG, C.S.I.*(Member of the Council of India.)*

Mr. G. K. Gokhale's sad death is an irreparable national calamity. In him India has lost one of her greatest sons, and the foremost of her public men. As a political leader he was unsurpassed in the hold he had acquired on the affectionate esteem and confidence of his countrymen. This was the result of a rare combination of noble qualities. The purity of his life and the sincerity of his motives were as transparent as a crystal.

MR. A. MACCALLUM SCOTT, M.P.

His constructive and formative genius was one of the chief factors in consolidating the Indian national movement into a powerful constitutional force. Although he never held office in the sense of directly controlling policy, yet his all too short life's work has had a powerful influence on the development of the Indian constitution. To him, no less than to Lord Hardinge or Lord Morley or Lord Crewe, is due the credit of the happier state of things which now prevails in India. It is a terrible tragedy that he should have been taken away at the time when his influence would have been most useful in shaping the developments which must follow. The nation which can produce such a statesman as Gopal Krishna Gokhale need have no fears as to its destiny and the empire which has the wisdom to recognise and accept them need not view with anxiety the growth of a national movement.

DR. V. H. RUTHERFORD.

Mr. Gokhale was not a Mazzini, nor a William Tell, nor a William Wallace, and yet his name will be honourably mentioned in the history of Indian nationalism. A diplomatist to his finger-tips, he knew how to play on the national lyre without offending the official ear. His advocacy of freedom and his country's rights never brought him into violent conflict with the British hierarchy, and the honour conferred upon some of his compatriots of banishment without charge or trial never fell to his lot; nor did he ever languish, like the Irish leaders, in British gaols as a political suspect. In sharp contradistinction to the programme of physical force paraded in Ulster and approved by one political party in Great Britain, Mr. Gokhale's policy for India was one of peaceful penetration. The first fruits of his efforts were the Morley reforms but whether he was responsible for their mildness or not, Lord Morley alone can say. A little more of the Western spirit of militancy would have made Mr. Gokhale a really formidable leader like Parnell or Kosanth, but born and bred in the mephitic atmosphere of subjection and alien over-rule, one cannot but admire the way in which he overcame his surroundings and accomplished good work for his country. India's loyal sons will follow in his train until India's soul is satisfied and her freedom attained.

SIR MANCHERJEE BHOWNAGGREE, K.C.I.E

I regard as one of his most notable achievements the establishment of the Servants of India Society, because I have felt that the discussion of Indian questions requires deep study on the part of the public men of India, and the institution of such a body is to my mind well adapted to train the rising generation of intelligent Indians to carry on the work which he performed to such an eminent degree during his all too short life.

RIGHT HON. E. S. MONTAGU, M.P.*(Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, formerly Under Secretary of State for India.)*

We have lost the outstanding figure in the great transition stage of modern India; a man whose abilities brought him to the forefront, and whose sense of right forced him into controversies of which we have not yet seen the end. But at this moment the dominant feeling among all who were brought into contact with him is, I think, that the value of a life and personality such as his—a record of single-minded devotion to an unselfish ideal and of ceaseless labour in its service over an almost unlimited field of activity—stand above and apart from all controversy. * * * One of the many remarkable characteristics of Mr. Gokhale was the degree to which he was able to combine enthusiasm for reform with a patient industry not too often found in close association with the first quality. But he never allowed his idealism and his infinite capacity for taking pains to interfere with one another; rather, they both served as a joint inspiration to the work he set before him. The result was that, whether one agreed or disagreed with him, he gave a sense of practicalness in his dealings which seemed to sweep away half the difficulties at the outset. * * * He impressed one as being among the most candid and unassuming of men and he was equally ready to give or to take advice where it seemed most serviceable. His mind possessed the qualities ascribed to statesmanship without overlosing the fire of its enthusiasms or its warm human interests. We feel that his loss touches deeply not only India but the Empire and the whole world of men whose thoughts move in harmony, whether they know it or not, with the spirit of the brotherhood of "The Servants of India."

MR. J. RAMSAY MACDONALD, M.P.

In him India had a faithful and devoted son. He belonged to that race of Indians who retained that calm dignity of mind and spirit which comes from an unassailable belief in their own race and its destiny.

He knew the West, its powers and its kingdoms. No one paid a more whole-hearted homage to its attainments. But he knew the East too. The breath of the life of his Mother India was his own breath of life. Jealously he guarded her reputation, faithfully he strove to remove her defects. Where she had fallen, he sought to uplift her; where she had triumphed, he sought to praise her.

I have sat for many days with him on the Royal Commission, and of the many interests of that Commission his personality and methods have been in the forefront. His knowledge, his resource, his nimbleness, his persistence, his authority, have been a source of endless wonder to me. And he will never sign the report.

Sadly I parted from him when he went away, for I knew that the chances were that we should never meet again. May his resting place remain in the affectionate hearts of his people. He would desire no other shrine. May his work inspire those who have to step in and fill the places he has left vacant. He would have prayed for no better resurrection.

MR. DAJI ABAJI KHABE.

He was just the man which the times required—always solicitous for his country's welfare, proud of its past glory and confident of its capacity to achieve greater glory in the future, but at the same time quite alive to its present shortcomings and their resultant disabilities.

THE HORSE AND WAR.

WHILE the expansion of mechanical transport has largely reduced the number of horses required for the transport service of the army, a corresponding expansion in civilian life has largely decreased the numbers of horses of the omnibus type, which had for many years been our chief source of supply for the Royal Artillery. Further during recent years we have been compelled to realise that Cavalry regiments in the Home army contained a very considerable number of horses which would not be fit for the great strain that would be imposed on them on the outbreak of war. This led to an increase in the establishment of horses to ensure that no animal would be in the ranks on mobilization until he had reached 6 years of age. Since the outbreak of war a very large number of horses have been required for the army, very many more indeed than our mobilization problem ever provided for, owing to the enormous expansion of our forces, particularly the Artillery branch. The arrangements for mobilization as regards horses were based on the application of the impressment law which permits the State on a national emergency to impress for public service any horse found fit at a price to be settled by the purchasing officer, usually County gentlemen of repute who volunteer their services. Now while the horses required for draught purposes require little training as discipline is inborn, the cavalry troop horse requires a great deal. Thanks to recent additions to the peace establishment of cavalry regiments and the system of boarding out trained horses to private persons under certain conditions, Cavalry regiments were able to mobilize with full complement of trained horses and retain a first reinforcement of about 8 % when war broke out; while the sections of the Army Horse Reserve were able to supply the horses required for the Artillery and Transport Units. On mobilization reserve units of the various mounted branches were formed for the purpose of training drafts of men and horses for the troops in the field. These reserve units are filled up from the horses obtained by impressment and they supply the field army units. The remount depots refill the reserve units while the depots are refilled by purchases both in the United Kingdom, and from such oversea places as Australia, Canada and South America, another of the many great advantages which the Command of the sea con-

fers on us. Reviewing the situation generally the system resulted in placing within a fortnight of the order to mobilize 36,000 horses in the Expeditionary Force, 80,000 for the Territorial forces and 18,000 for the reserve formations.

Now it is a vital axiom that the efficiency of any body of mounted troops on service depends first and foremost on the condition of each horse. Just as the health and feeding of the soldier has the greatest care paid to it, so it is essential that the horse be carefully looked after. There is no more willing or sagacious animal than the horse and on his well-being may depend not merely the life of his rider or the safety of a gun, but possibly the security of the whole army. Hence the importance of being a good horsemaster cannot be too frequently impressed on the mind of every recruit from the moment he joins, and he is trained to keep his horse effective under all circumstances on service.

As a rule the life of a horse in the field is extremely hard and the percentage of casualties large.

So far this article has dealt with the supply of horses to the army in the field before and after mobilization. Since the history of the horse in war is largely the history of its rider and as the characteristic of Cavalry is the action of the man and horse combined, the subject will best be continued by generally considering the employment of Cavalry in the field. One of the most important lessons which a Cavalry have to learn is how best to economize the power of their horses, and while understanding how to use this power to the utmost when occasion demands, recognise and practise how to spare it in every possible way at other times.

Cavalry in the field are divided into two main parts, the strategical or independent cavalry, and what may be termed the protective cavalry. The roll of the first named is to obtain accurate information as regards the disposition, strength and direction of march of the hostile forces, which may possibly entail the defeat of the hostile cavalry as a prelude to obtaining the sought-for information. The second body, or protective cavalry covers and protects, as its name indicates, the movements of the main column and is usually placed under the orders of subordinate Commanders, whereas the independent cavalry receives orders direct from the Commander-in-Chief. Now between the

close of the Boer war and the outbreak of the present European war a great tendency was observed to cultivate an idea that the day of cavalry was past, and that its modern counterpart was to be found in what was termed the "mounted rifleman." It is extremely lucky for us that our foremost cavalry leaders were strong enough to combat with some large measure of success, if not to entirely eradicate this fatal idea. Stubborn as was the fight put up by our infantry divisions in the retreat from Mons, we have even to a larger extent to thank the magnificent training and glorious self-sacrifice of our cavalry and horse artillery for a successful issue from a dangerous position. If during recent weeks our Cavalry have found little scope for mounted action, this has been on account of the severity of the winter and the flooding of S. W. Belgium. Meanwhile they have often taken the place of infantry in the trenches with marked success, notably during those October days before Ypres in support of the 7th Division. When the spring comes and in the plains in the S. E. of Belgium all cavalry men hold that what Frederick the Great said 150 years ago that "in war success largely depends on the superiority of one's cavalry" will prove its truth. For has it not already been evident that the allied Cavalry have established a personal ascendancy over the Germans?

Cavalry are the eyes and ears of an army ascended in these modern days by the aviation corps. Reconnaissance is the most important of a cavalry soldier's individual duties and requires much careful training and a great deal of zeal and intelligence from the man. Reconnaissance is of two kinds, strategical and tactical. The first named avoids all fighting, requires considerable cunning and stratagem and is as a rule directed against the probable lines of advance of the enemy. Tactical patrols devote their attention to getting in touch with and collecting information about the hostile cavalry, and to carry out this, will probably have to fight. Briefly then in the advance to the battlefield and the preparatory phase the two main duties of cavalry are to afford the maximum of information and to give protection, the two duties being distinctly separated and entrusted to distinct bodies of cavalry.

Such duties will have naturally made considerable demands on the strength and energy of horse and man alike, and it is here that good horsemanship tells. As the action now begins to develop the mounted troops are gradually drawn in. The efforts which either a retreat or a pursuit calls for from horses are very severe,

and whenever possible during the battle, opportunities must be seized to feed, water, and rest them. The pursuit which is the only means by which the real fruits of victory can be garnered is the special duty of cavalry, and it makes heavy demands on the horses. The greatest effort must be put forward to turn the enemies' defeat into a rout, and the pursuit must therefore be kept up day and night without regard to men or horses. To do this it is manifestly essential that cavalry during a battle must avoid all action of a secondary nature so as to enter on the crisis of the battle fresh and vigorous. In retreat similarly vigorous action but of a far more self-sacrificing nature is demanded of the cavalry. History provides many examples of this splendid spirit of self-sacrifice on the part of cavalry, but one need only turn to the gallant conduct of our own 1st Cavalry Division during the retreat from Mons, to the charge of the 9th Lancers or of the Scots Greys at St. Quentin to realise the splendid spirit which is the birthright they inherit from that irresistible mailed cavalry which once hammered the Scots and humbled France. Lastly let us glance briefly at the system of attending casualties amongst horses in the field.

The Army Veterinary Service is organised with the view of securing the efficiency of horses in the field :

(1) by preventing the introduction and spread of contagious disease.

(2) by means of first aid in the case of casualties,

(3) by taking over the care of sick horses.

Veterinary hospitals are established on the lines of communication to which sick and wounded animals are sent for treatment. Assistance is being afforded to the army veterinary corps by the Society for the prevention of cruelty to animals. During the retreat from Mons and the advance to the Aisne the losses and suffering amongst the horses were great. Latterly except from the effects of weather the wastage in horse flesh has been very light, but when the next advance takes place great efforts will be demanded of the horses. Wounds from high explosive shells suppurate very quickly and the only chance of saving a horse's life is to be able to remove animals quickly to one of the hospitals on the lines of communication and operate on them under chloroform. An effort is now being made to do this by providing one motor ambulance for wounded horses to each division. How much the Army Veterinary Corps have already done may be instanced from the figures of one base-hospital, in which out of 800 sick or wounded horses passing through it in one month, the percentage of deaths was only four.

AIRCRAFT AND MODERN WARFARE

BY. J. W. MADELEY, M.A., M. INST., C.E.

"Aviation is one of the most important subjects to which the modern officer can pay attention at the present day."--SIR JOHN FRENCH.

TYPES OF AIRCRAFT.

Aircraft may be divided into the following types:—

(1) *Airships* which are lighter than air and which may be again sub-divided into:

(a) Rigid, and (b) Collapsible.

(2) *Aeroplanes* which are heavier than air and of which there are two types, namely, Monoplane and Biplane.

These types of aircraft are both described in some detail in another article, and here we are only concerned with their effect on war.

COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES OF AIRSHIPS AND AEROPLANES.

Comparing the aeroplane and the airship for use in war, it may be said that the aeroplane has the following advantages:—

(1) It is much *less costly*.

(2) It possesses greater *speed*. The average speed of a good aeroplane may be taken as 75 miles an hour as compared with 45 miles an hour of a good airship.

(3) The great *ease and rapidity* with which an aeroplane can *manoeuvre* as compared with an airship.

(4) The readiness with which an aeroplane can be *taken to pieces*, packed in small compass and transported. For instance, in France I have seen many Bleriot monoplanes running on their own wheels and pulled along by motor cars, their wings being folded along their backs, so that they resembled large dragon flies.

(5) The *rapidity* with which an aeroplane can *rise*. This gives it a great advantage in attacking an airship, as with its superior speed and greater climbing power, it can always get above the airship.

(6) Its comparative *invulnerability*, for an aeroplane may be pierced by hundreds of bullets, and still continue on its flight. On the other hand, an airship is very delicate and readily destroyed.

(7) Its comparative *small size*, when combined with its high speed and power of rapid manoeuvring, makes it an exceedingly difficult target to hit as compared with a large airship some 500 feet long and 50 feet in diameter.

The advantages of an airship over an aeroplane are:—

(1) That it can *hover*, that is to say, its engines may be stopped, and it can remain in one position, and carefully study the ground underneath it. It can therefore aim bombs and guns with greater accuracy.

(2) It has a considerably *greater radius of action* than an aeroplane. The radius of action of one of the new large Zeppelins is some 500 miles.

The newest machine can remain in the air for 48 hours at a time.

(3) The *lifting power* is very much greater.

(4) The dirigible has a *large steady platform*, and is therefore most suited for firing from and for transmitting and receiving messages by wireless telegraphy.

USES OF AIRCRAFT IN WARFARE.

Aircraft are used mainly for observation purposes and to a minor extent for attack. Up to the present by far the more important use of aircraft is for observation, of which less is heard than of the more spectacular bomb dropping. As aircraft continue to develop, however, there is little doubt that their offensive powers will be very much increased.

OBSERVATION.

The principal uses of aircraft in observation are to locate and bring back news concerning the numbers, disposition, and composition, of the troops of the enemy, their movements, traffic on railways, and also the disposition of friendly troops. Further, aircraft have become indispensable to artillery which in modern warfare, with its long ranges and carefully concealed positions, would be quite blind without aircraft.

USE WITH OTHER ARMS.

There has been, and for a long time will continue to be, much discussion on the effect of aviation and its employment in conjunction with other arms. In connection with land forces, aviation is most closely allied with cavalry and artillery. Aircraft aid and save cavalry much unnecessary work, and they are able to bring in information very much more rapidly. Under reasonable conditions of weather and country, a commander may within 3½ hours expect a report on the position, approximate strength, formation and direction of movement of the

enemy anywhere within an 80 mile radius. Without aeroplanes, a similar result would take an officer's patrol sent out from the strategic cavalry at least three days, while the prospects of acquiring information would be less, and the information when received by the commander would be much less accurate. Aircraft also assist in the service of inter-communication and co-operation of all arms, and finally it supplements the Telegraph and Telephone service in obtaining news of what is happening during the battle. Thus, aircraft afford a degree of security, save officers, men and horseflesh, and reduce the anxiety and strain of the commander.

HEIGHT DURING RECONNAISSANCE.

The height at which aircraft should fly during reconnaissance depends on the conditions of weather. Experience has shown that anything under 4,000 feet is unsafe from rifle fire, while to be quite safe from modern anti-aircraft guns, it is necessary to maintain an altitude of 8,000 feet. At the same time even at 4,000 feet it is very difficult to see anything in detail. Therefore when a flier is looking for information, he has to take risks. When he has obtained the information, however, he should always ascend to a safe height so as to guard the information he has obtained. Skilled pilots take advantage of clouds for concealment when available.

PILOTS AND OBSERVERS.

In scouting work, it is necessary that every aeroplane should have a pilot to fly the machine, and an observer to record what is seen. There should be means of intercommunication between the two by means of speaking tubes or other similar appliances. Up to the present no very suitable method has been devised. On my own aeroplane I have been able to converse with my passengers, but it requires considerable shouting on account of the noise made by the engine and the rush of wind.

Observers require careful training and practice before they can bring the accurate and complete information.

So important is it to have good observers that Colonel Sykes, Commandant, Military Wing, Royal Flying Corps, considers that the best of staff officers, and as many of them as possible, should be trained and kept in practice as observers. Untrained officers are of no use.

NOTES ON SCOUTING.

The scouting, before the forces come into contact, is generally a matter of observing the enemy's main bodies. When the forces are coming

into touch with each other, however, the troops must be observed after they have left the roads; it is then harder to find them, and most difficult to estimate their strength. For observation purposes on these occasions, it is very advisable to have staff officers skilled in the work, who know the latest reports received, to make ascents from time to time.

Having obtained information the greatest value must at once be gained from it, and the aircraft commander must be in constant touch with the general staff. Further, his observers should be placed in full possession of all information already gained and movements intended.

HANDING IN INFORMATION.

The method of handing in information still requires developing. Wireless telegraphy has been successfully used from airships, but not yet from aeroplanes, and considerable development in this direction may be expected in the future. Wireless is of course subject to the disadvantage that messages may be tapped or jammed.

In any case, a great deal depends upon the observer. He has to decide whether he will communicate his information to the forces in the firing line, or to the staff, and also whether he shall land or drop his message. Landing takes more time and in some areas it may be dangerous. On the other hand, a message cannot give the same details as can be done in person after landing. To drop messages, bags are usually employed, but the French have recently developed a method of dropping a cylinder, which on striking the ground causes a light to burn and to indicate its whereabouts. The disadvantage of dropping these cylinders is that they are liable to injure friends.

USE WITH ARTILLERY.

As already stated, aeroplanes have become indispensable to artillery in order to enable the fire director to properly control his fire. Before long it is probable that every artillery commander will have his own aeroplanes. A not uncommon plan is for the aeroplane to drop smoke balls immediately over the enemy. These float in the air sufficiently long to enable the range to be taken. The artillery then commences fire at, say, 100 yards short, and gradually increases the range until the aeroplane observer signals that it is correct. In this way, artillery is able to fire at, and strike, invisible targets, and during the present war, largely due to the co-operation of aircraft, artillery has attained an importance which it has not enjoyed since the days of Napoleon.

USE OF AIRCRAFT FOR THE OFFENSIVE.

The advantages possessed by aircraft in attack are obvious. Fortifications are not so well prepared to defend themselves against the attack of aircraft. Again, aircraft can attack the centre of a fort or a city, whereas batteries and other methods of attack have first to destroy the perimeter defences. The experience of Paris and Antwerp shows that the Germans are quite capable of dropping explosives on the defenceless inhabitants of any city, to which they can obtain access. And judging by their general policy of striking terror in the hearts of people by inflicting suffering on the defenceless, it is a form of warfare that must be carefully considered. It is satisfactory to note, however, that the Hague Conference of 1907 decided that the bombardment of undefended towns by *any means whatsoever* should be forbidden. But this, though satisfactory as far as it goes, is of little value, unless there is means to enforce the regulation.

The recent air raid by naval officers on the Zeppelin factory at Friedrichshafen furnishes a good example of what may be effected by aeroplanes in offensive work at the present time. The following is the official announcement as made by the Secretary of the Admiralty through the Press Bureau:—

"On Saturday a flight of aeroplanes under the Commander E. F. Briggs, of the Royal Naval Air Service, with flight Commander J. T. Babington and flight Lieutenant S. V. Sippe as pilots, flew from French territory to the Zeppelin airship factory at Friedrichshafen.

"All three pilots in succession flew down to close range under a heavy fire from guns, mitrailleuses, and rifles, and launched their bombs according to instructions. Commander Briggs is reported to have been shot down, wounded, and taken to hospital as a prisoner. Both the other officers have returned safely to French territory, though their machines were damaged by gun fire. They report positively that all bombs reached their objective, and that serious damage was done to the Zeppelin factory.

"This flight of 250 miles, which penetrated 120 miles into Germany, across mountainous country, in difficult weather conditions, constitutes with the attack a fine feat of arms."

It is satisfactory to record that the new British army aeroplane is the best possessed by any nation. It is easily the fastest, and most stable, and is also one of the best climbers and strongest machines in existence.

FIGHTING AEROPLANES.

Aeroplanes have already been furnished with guns and light armour, and a Russian named Sikorsky had constructed an aeroplane which will carry 10 men and more. There can be no doubt that, at an early date, powerful fighting

aeroplanes will be constructed which will be used to destroy the enemy's speedy light scouts. It would appear then that there will be two types of aeroplane, one type employed for scouting purpose, and the other type employed in destroying the enemy's aeroplanes and airships.

The attempt to obtain the command of the air will, in future, probably take place at the very outbreak of hostilities and before the land forces come to grips. The moral effect of losing the first aerial encounters is likely to be very great.

In this connection, it is very satisfactory to learn that the British aviators have established a moral superiority over their German adversaries. It is stated that whenever a German aeroplane appears in sight, two British aeroplanes rise to drive it away, or to destroy it. If they are able to continue this plan, the German aeroplanes will soon be tied as securely to the ground as the German navy is bottled up in its own harbours.

WEAPONS USED WITH AEROPLANES.

In fighting between aeroplanes, quick-firing guns, rifles and revolvers are commonly employed. For use against enemy situated on land, the most usual weapon has been the explosive bomb, which usually weighs about 22 lbs. and is fitted with a percussion fuse to make it explode readily on striking any surface. Airships may carry machine guns, and sometimes they are provided with torpedo discharge apparatus in the cars below the gas chamber; they are also frequently armed with a machine gun carried on the top, access to it being obtained by means of a shaft through the gas chamber.

Fig. 1.

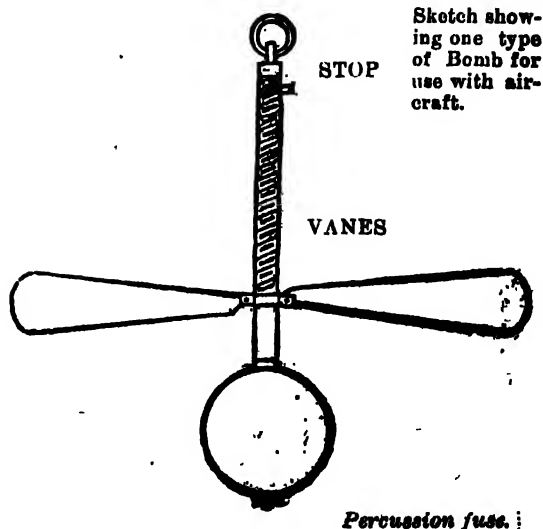


Fig. 1. shows one type of bomb for use with aircraft. It is furnished with vanes which, when the bomb is dropped, are caused to rotate and move upwards along the spirally grooved stem. When they strike the stop on the top, they cause the bomb to become armoured, so that it will explode readily on striking.

There is considerable difficulty in aiming a bomb accurately for the reason that it does not fall vertically, but continues to travel onwards in the direction of movement of the aeroplane after it has been dropped.

Fig. 2.

Diagram showing path of bomb dropped from a height of 6,500 feet from aeroplane flying at 67 miles per hour.

Point at which bomb is dropped.

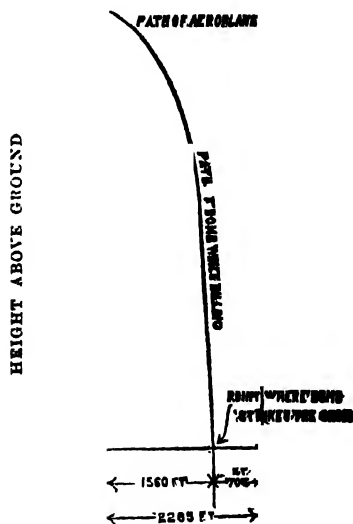


Fig. 2. shows the path of a bomb dropped from a height of 6,500 feet above ground level from an aeroplane travelling at 67 miles per hour. The bomb will reach the earth in 23 seconds, and as indicated in the diagram, during that time it will have travelled 1,560 feet from the point at which it was dropped. The aeroplane if it continued on its course would in the same time reach a point 705 feet beyond the point where the bomb strikes the ground.

By means of a series of tables, and knowing the height of the aeroplane above the ground from the instruments carried, the observer is able to make a calculation of the distance behind the target at which the bomb should be dropped. This depends on the speed of the aeroplane which

in still air is given by means of air speed measurer which every aircraft should carry. There is however nearly always some wind, and the speed and direction of motion relative to the earth are not the same as that through the air.

Fig. 3.

Direction in which aeroplane points speed 60 M.P.H.



Fig. 3. shows how an aircraft with an air speed at 60 miles an hour steering along a line A B is deflected by a wind of 30 miles an hour blowing in a direction A C, so that the actual line and movement of the aircraft is in the direction A D at a speed of 79 miles per hour.

With aeroplanes it is very difficult to find the speed relative to the earth, but with airships it has been found possible to measure it by reflecting an image of the ground surface on to a screen. The speed at which a point on the ground surface apparently travels across the screen, and its direction enables the observer to determine with some degree of accuracy the direction and speed of the aircraft's movement relative to the earth.

USE OF DARTS WITH AIR CRAFT.

In the present war, the use of steel darts and arrows has been largely developed for attacking troops by aircraft. One type is about 5 inches long stamped out of a steel rod. The tip is bullet-shaped and behind it the rod is reduced to a wire with a steel feathering to ensure the descent of the dart point downwards. The darts weigh about

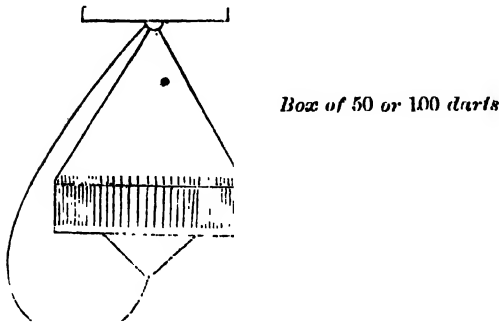
Sketch showing one type of dart used with aircraft.



$\frac{3}{4}$ oz. each, and some 12,500 can be carried by an aeroplane. It is stated that from as low an elevation as 600 feet, the dart will kill or wound

as surely as any rifle bullet. In a Munich paper Dr. Volkmann states that a dart which struck :

Sketch showing box full of darts which are discharged by pulling a string, and thus turning the box upside down.



man on the shoulder traversed the whole of his body; he says that the wounds inflicted are almost always mortal. The English and the Germans have recently adopted these darts, and in a letter recently received from England, I heard of one firm in Bolton that had received an order for 50 million darts, packed in one million boxes, each containing 50 darts, which were launched by sliding back the bottom of the box.

EFFECT OF AVIATION ON WAR STRATEGY AND TACTICS.

The general result of aviation on war strategy tactics is that :—

(1) The plans prepared in peace have to be developed with the greatest possible care and brain power in order that the preliminary dispositions of the troops may be best possible.

(2) An all round speeding up of strategic operations become necessary.

(3) The Generals commanding should possess a much fuller and much more accurate knowledge of the positions and movements of both their own allies and their enemy, and this should lead to more order.

(4) If the huge masses of modern armies are found to have been wrongly placed, the enemy's aircraft will discover it, and no amount of zeal, training, bravery, or mobility, can make up for it. There will be no time for a general reshuffling such as has been possible in the past.

(5) The offensive will increase in advantage over the defensive.

(6) The position, strength and movements of army corps will be accurately known.

Hitherto it has sometimes been possible for small mobile well commanded force by rapid hidden movements to defeat considerably larger forces. This was exemplified in the American Civil War by Jackson, who, by his splendid daring, was able to defeat armies considerably larger than his own. Aircraft will render such action practically impossible.

HOW AIR CRAFT MIGHT HAVE ALTERED HISTORY.

Reading accounts of the Napoleonic battles, I have been much struck with the fact that one army was often quite in the dark as to the positions of other armies, both friends and foes. As is well-known, Napoleon's defeat at the battle of Waterloo was largely due to the way in which his General Grouchy was deceived by Blucher. As will be remembered, Blucher with the German Army was marching to join the English Army, and Napoleon despatched Grouchy to hold Blucher in check, while he with his superior force defeated the English. Blucher however was able completely to deceive Grouchy, to slip by him and to reinforce the English at a highly critical time. If Grouchy had been supplied with aircraft he would have known exactly where Blucher's main army was. He could have carried out Napoleon's wishes and might have considerably altered the history of Europe of that time.

Even as late as the battle of Mukden in the Russo-Japanese War, the Japanese were able to deceive the Russians and cause them to think that their left flank would be turned. To prevent this, reserves were hurried eastwards that they might be thrown against the main Japanese attack, which in reality was on the west flank. Had the Russians been in possession of aircraft, such deception would have been impossible.

ANTI-AIRCRAFT GUNS AND THEIR AMMUNITION.

The introduction of airships and aeroplanes has brought about the design of special guns to attack aircraft. Ordinary guns are not suitable on account of the exceptional conditions, for an airship or aeroplane presents a rapidly moving target, the range of which is not easily ascertained.

Rifle fire and machine gun fire are lacking in range, effectiveness, and facility for observing the path of the projectile.

Ordinary field-guns do not possess sufficient elevation to allow of their being trained on aircraft, nor, when they are once trained, are they able to follow it.

The principal requirements of an anti-aircraft gun are : that it must be capable of great elevation up to nearly 90 degrees. It must be capable of firing in any lateral direction. The pivoting mechanism must be so arranged that the gun may be rotated sufficiently quickly to follow the movement of the aircraft, and finally a rapid rate of firing must be maintained.

Three types of guns have been developed on these lines. One for use in the field mounted on a light two-wheeled carriage ; another for use on a motor car, and a heavier gun for use on board ship.

AMMUNITION.

Among the special ammunition that has been devised for use against aircraft may be mentioned :—

(1) The incendiary shell for igniting the gas of the dirigible.

(2) A smoke producing shell. A hollow space in the rear being fitted with smoke producing material, which gives out a thick easily visible smoke, enabling the path of the shell to be readily followed, so that the correction of aim required may be readily ascertained.

AVOIDANCE OF OBSERVATION.

For troops that wish to avoid observation by aircraft, the following points should be borne in mind :—The two principal influences are back-

ground and movement ; for instance, troops are easily seen on a light coloured road when moving, while they are difficult to perceive if lying amongst grass or small bushes, and if they keep still. Another point to be borne in mind is never to look up.

If on a broad road and an enemy aeroplane comes in sight, it is well to keep all troops on one side and instruct them to keep perfectly still. The remainder of the road will from a considerable height appear to be the whole road. On the other hand, when in column of route on a narrow road, cover should at once be taken on both sides. When moving in extended order in open country, troops should be instructed immediately to take such cover as is available and to lie quite still until the aircraft has passed. Woods, belts of trees, high hedges, and villages are examples of good cover. When in camp or bivouac, enemy observers may be deceived if the usual formation is altered, if, for instance, a battery can be made to appear like a R. E. Company.

Troops billeted in villages or towns are a difficult problem for the observer. It is impossible for the aircraft observer to determine what is their number or composition. It is probable that in the present war, villages and towns have on this account been greatly used for accommodating troops, and this may explain to some extent the great amount of destruction of villages and towns that has taken place.

It is well to light cooking fires near villages, so that the smoke may not attract the attention of the enemy.

G. A. NATESAN & CO.'S PUBLICATIONS.

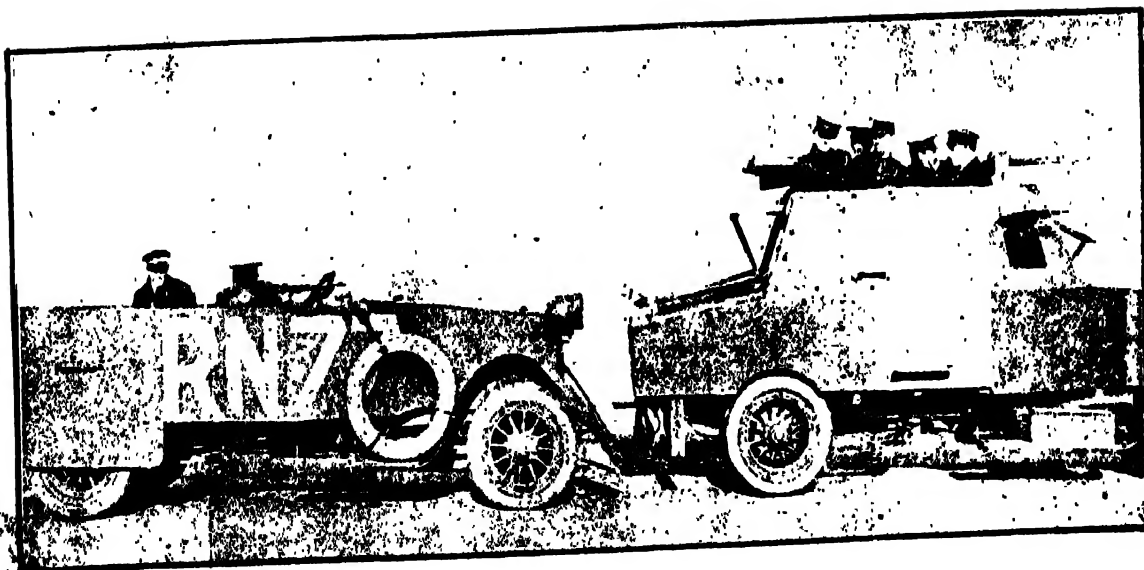
Many of our countrymen are deeply indebted to the head of the enterprising firm of G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras, for the valuable publications they have been placing before the Indian public dealing with important questions of contemporary interest or with the lives and careers of some of our foremost Indians, both ancient and modern. We do not think there is any other publishing house in India that has attempted what Mr. Natesan has done with so much success during the last four years to instruct public opinion by means of handy, cheap, and useful publications. Mr. Natesan is not only a man of literary attainments but endowed with business capacity and sound discernment. He certainly deserves to be congratulated on the success of his useful publications.—*The Gopuratti*.

There are certainly no publishing houses in India that can at all be compared with those of Murray, Constable, Blackie and Macmillan in England. Such historic concerns apart, there are very few firms that take the trouble of being up-to-date, or by the variety of their publications to form and direct the public taste or to diffuse useful and interesting knowledge among their constituents. Among these few Messrs. Natesan and Company of Madras undoubtedly occupy the place of honour. The *Indian Review*, published by Mr. Natesan, is undoubtedly a gem of its kind and no cultured Indian cares to be without it. But the Review represents only one side of Mr. Natesan's activity. Not a month elapses but this enterprising firm brings out elaborate volumes on every kind of subject that affects the interests of India and they are generally the work of men who know what they are writing about. But one of the most popular outputs of the firm is the string of short, succinct and instructive biographies of eminent Indians which are published from day * * * Messrs. Natesan & Co. are doing a distinct and national service by issuing brief sketches of the lives of men who have played an important part in the modern epochs of Indian History. We thankfully acknowledge the receipt of all these and have great pleasure in briefly noticing them.—*The Sanjivartan*.

G. A. NATESAN & CO., BOOKSELLERS, 4, SUNKURAMA CHETTY STREET, MADRAS.



AN ARMoured LORRY AMMUNITION TO THE BRITISH FIRING LINE.



BELGIAN ARMoured CAR SETTING OUT FOR UHLAN HUNT.

From the "T.P.'s Journal."



AUSTIN EXCAVATOR FOR SMALL TRENCHES.



AUSTIN EXCAVATOR FOR LARGE TRENCHES.

From "The Indian and Eastern Engineer."



THE GERMAN SAW-EDGED BAYONET.



THE GREAT GERMAN GUN THAT SHATTERED THE FORTS OF ANTWERP IN A FEW DAYS.

THE MEN OF THE MOMENT.

MR. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE.

No one who heard, or has read, Mr. Lloyd George's speech on the war of this year, at the Queen's Hall, London, on September the 19th, touching as it did the chords of irony, scorn, pathos and denunciation and ending with a passage of prophetic eloquence, can be indifferent to the name and fame of Lloyd George even if such a person ordinarily takes no interest in politics or politicians. Mr. Lloyd George, Chancellor of the Exchequer in Mr. Asquith's government, was born 51 years ago in Manchester and is the son of the late Mr. William George, Master of the Hope Street Unitarian School, Liverpool. Of his mother little is known except that she was the daughter of Mr. Richard Owen, a Baptist Minister. She was very religious and perhaps narrow in her views. Mr. William George died when Lloyd George was about two years of age, leaving little, a very little, for the upbringing of his family.

Mr. Geoffrey, a Liverpool Solicitor, a friend of Mr. William George, helped his widow to protect and realize the slender property bequeathed by Mr. George and was a friend in need, while Mrs. George's brother, Mr. Richard Lloyd, gave his sister and her children a home. As a boy Lloyd George was mischievous, and thoughtful beyond his years. Mrs. Lloyd George was always profoundly stirred by religious questions and her son grew up in an uncompromising non-conformist atmosphere—an atmosphere which has affected all his career. The village school in those days was under the care of the Church of England parson, and the squire was the visitor and condescended to hear the boys recite the Catechism, and young Lloyd George cherished hostile feelings against both of these formidable personages. Lloyd George later in life defeated the same squire in a political contest, but in his school days took an active part in the school in organising a strike, by maintaining absolute silence when questioned on the Catechism. It was a kind of passive resistance which, when repeated, succeeded so well that both the Catechism and the great annual procession to church on Ash Wednesday were finally given up. Young David had decided to be a Solicitor and found it necessary to master the elements of French and Latin with the aid of a French grammar and a dictionary, and the encouragement and co-operation of his uncle, who was as ignorant as himself of French. Lloyd George managed to wade through the preliminary examination when

14 years old. On leaving the village school Mr. Lloyd George entered University College Aberystwyth, and at 16 years of age was articled as a clerk in a Solicitor's Office. It was with the greatest difficulty that he paid his fees and obtained his law books and found money for his journey to London to pass his final examination. For five-and-a-half years he remained in the solicitor's office and he had to wait for two years before he could find the sum of three guineas to pay for his robes to get an audience at the Welsh Law Courts. He would probably have remained many years in an obscure position were it not that his opportunity came with what is known as the Slanfor Hill case, which was the result of the Rector of the Parish of Slanfor Hill refusing to permit the burial of a Non-Conformist in the family grave in the churchyard. Mr. Lloyd George sums up the case thus:—"The people came to me; I advised that the gates of the churchyard should be forced. They were forced. They were fined for trespass and litigation followed. By the time the struggle had come to an end my name was known all over the Principality." The Slanfor Hill case decided Mr. George to enter politics, and he fought and was returned for the Carnarvon Boroughs in 1889. The squire referred to earlier in this paper, Mr. Ellis Nanney, was the representative of the class and the creed with which the young politician had been brought into conflict from his very early years. He made his first public speech in London at the Metropolitan Tabernacle, and his maiden speech in the House of Commons concerned a clause in the Local Taxation Bill in which he obtained the insertion of Wales and a share for her in the grant of that Bill. Mr. Lloyd George was an outspoken critic of the Boer War and even dared to couch a lance against the late Mr. Chamberlain. He has fought his way up every rung of the political ladder without any of the adventitious influences which assist so many men to success. Down to the time of the formation of the Liberal Ministry Mr. Lloyd George had the reputation of being a brilliant lawyer and only that, but as President of the Board of Trade from 1906 to 1908, he proved beyond doubt his ability as an administrator who has succeeded in carrying out measures such as a drastic Merchants' Shipping Act, a Patents and Designs Act as well as other important legislations. His work as Chancellor of the Exchequer and his famous budgets are too well known to be again re-counted,

PRINCE VON BULOW.

Prince Von Bulow is the one German statesman who enjoys a European reputation. His career is exceptional. The author of the "Men Around the Kaiser" tells us that Prince Bulow, now sixty-five, traces his ancestry back to the twelfth century. For generations his family has been conspicuously identified with war, religion, diplomacy, politics, literature, music, the arts, and all the great movements of Prussia and Germany. Prior to his appointment as Foreign Secretary in Berlin in 1896, Bulow had a unique international experience at the German Legations and Embassies at St. Petersburg, Paris, Rome and Bukharest. He has won many a diplomatic bout in his exceptional career. He brought about the downfall of M. Delcasse from the French Foreign Office which the Kaiser thought to be the deepest humiliation put upon France since Sedan. On the same day in June 1905 the Kaiser raised Bulow to the dignity of a Prince of Prussia.

As all things human, his triumph was only the prelude to his own fall. The Finance Reform Bill, coupled with Bulow's insistence that the great landed classes should be made to share the burden of the proposed Inheritance Tax, drove the agrarian Aristocracy into revolt against him. The "November Storm" of 1908 arising out of Bulow's fateful journey to Potsdam to extort from his Sovereign Master the pledge of "greater reserve in the discussion and conduct of the nation's affairs," brought about the foregone conclusion. And Prince Bernhard Von Bulow, the fourth Chancellor of the German Empire relinquished office on July 14, 1909.

Chancellors have come and gone since Bismarck, but Bulow has brilliantly impressed himself upon the generation as much by his utterances as by his supreme gift of silence. That Sphinx-like reserve and unruffled disposition have stood him in good stead. He has had his days of Parliamentary triumphs. One of the most suave of men, gifted with a magnetic presence, a master of what Lord Morley called 'the tedious art of managing men,' he delights in graceful utterances, repartee, imagery and rhetorical appeals seasoned with appropriate citations. He understands the psychology of the Kaiser and the German people, but he is not without defects in his estimation of other peoples and foreign policies. His own statement of the German standpoint in his "Imperial Germany" is a succinct account of his grasp of the German psychology

and he foresees the deadly conflict that was yet brewing in the heart of his nation.

A conflict between Germany and England would be a great misfortune for both countries, for Europe and for mankind in general. Ever since the day when I undertook the affairs of the Foreign Office I have been convinced that such a conflict would never come to pass:—

i. If we built a fleet which could not be attacked without very grave risk to the attacking party.

ii. If we did not, beyond that, indulge in undue and unlimited ship-building and armaments, and did not overheat our marine boiler.

iii. If we allowed no power to injure our reputation or our dignity.

iv. If we allowed nothing to make an irremediable breach between us and England. That is why I always repelled any impertinent attack which was likely to hurt our feelings as a nation, from whatever quarter it came, but resisted all temptations to interfere in the Boer War as that would have dealt English self-esteem a wound that would not heal.

v. If we kept calm and cool, and neither injured England nor ran after her.

As for France and Germany, Prince Bulow has long anticipated the war. He at any rate has had no shadow of a doubt as to the inevitability of the conflict.

"The irreconcilability of France is a factor that we must reckon with in our political calculations. It seems to me weakness to entertain the hope of a real and sincere reconciliation with France so long as we have no intention of giving up Alsace Lorraine. And there is no such intention in Germany."

A believer in the invincibility of the German armson land, he has other hopes for his Fatherland.

To make it possible to build a sufficient fleet was the foremost and greatest task of German policy after Bismarck's retirement; a task with which I also was immediately confronted when on June 28, 1897 at Kiel, on board the *Hohenzollern*, I was entrusted by H. M. the Emperor, with the conduct of foreign affairs, on the same day and the same spot on which twelve years later I handed in my resignation.

Von Bulow's Germany is not the Germany of Bismarck. Bismarck held that the "basis of a sound and sensible world policy is a strong, national home policy." Bulow went a step further. "If the course of events demands that we transcend the limits of Bismarck's aims then we must do so." Witness this declaration:—

If we wish to gain the position in the world that is due to us, we must rely on our sword, renounce all weakly visions of peace, and eye the dangers surrounding us with resolute and unflinching courage.

Prince Von Bulow married an illustrious Italian Countess who is also a great favourite at the Court. So the Kaiser has sent this great statesman to rally the Italian, to the German cause.

H. H. THE AGA KHAN.

Prince Aga Khan is eminently the man of the moment. On the outbreak of the Great War in Europe the Prince gave his counsel of loyalty to the British Raj to his followers in every part of the world. In fact the Prince is the natural leader of the Moslem world and he exercises this sacred right with becoming dignity and discretion. He is the descendant of the house of the Prophet of Islam through Fatima, the only child of Mahomet. He is the head of the great sect of the Ismailians, who are scattered over all parts of the world and in the Shiite world occupies a unique position. His ancestors founded the dynasty of the Fatimite Caliphs in the tenth century whose influence in the then world was unrivalled alike in intellectual as in the material resources. The Aga Khan's claim to Persia is no less deep. He has a great hold over the Persians through marriage and his claims to connections with the early kings of Persia are recognized. In the last century his grandfather was about to succeed to the throne of Persia. But fate decreed otherwise and he sought refuge in India. Now begins the Prince's association with the fortunes of the British whose cause he has espoused with such loyal enthusiasm. His loyalty is traditional. His grandfather cast in his lot with the British in India and fought valiantly in the Afghan and Sind wars. The British Government recognized the help by offering "the honoured Ally" a political pension and the title of His Highness. And the grandson of the First Aga Khan has kept the tradition in the very spirit of the old compact. He volunteered to serve as a private in any infantry in the present war.

The sudden uprising of the Turks has been a severe trial to His Highness. But the Aga Khan stuck to his principle, and the message he sent to his innumerable followers all over the world is an inspiring record. He is angry with Germany and sorry for Turkey.

H. H. the Aga Khan started on a mission to Egypt and India, at the instance of H. M. King George. No one is better fitted for this work, none can do it more thoroughly. He has done his work in Egypt and is full of lively impressions of the land of the Pharaohs. In India, as the head of the Ismaili Mahomedans and President of the All-India Moslem League, his influence is supreme among his co-religionists.

M. DELCASSE.

Foremost among the politicians of France, M. Delcasse's presence as the French Minister of War was enough to exasperate the Germans. The Germans could tolerate anything but this virile, fearless and acute minister. M. Delcasse has played a great rôle in the diplomatic history of the continent. A warm supporter of the *Triple Entente* it must rejoice his soul to find the Allies marching shoulder to shoulder against the common enemy. He was Colonial Minister in 1894, and Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1898. But this latter office he had to relinquish owing to German pressure. The Germans practically demanded his resignation at the threat of war, which France, though unwilling, had yet to comply with. But now France has her revenge, and what sort of man is her Minister? M. Delcasse combines the high intelligence and solid instruction of old France with the temper and the spirit of the new. He is now the guardian of national honour and an essential bulwark of his country. It was he, observes a writer in the *Fortnightly* shortly after the war, that fully realised that the friendship and support of England were indispensable to France for the proper development and protection of her world-interests. "It was he that obtained for his nation a free hand in Morocco and neutralised all substantial interests there. The 'Algeiras Convention' was a bitter lesson to him and brought home to him the necessity of strength. He helped to realise in Parliament the programme of two ships every year and carried out the concentration of the naval forces in the Mediterranean where things were complicated by the growing navies of Italy and Austria. He has often been accused of too blind a faith in Russia, himself being *persona grata* with the Czar's Government." He is, continues the writer, a confirmed enemy of the Germans and their bullyism, and if his disregard of Germany at the time of Algeiras really caused a danger to his country, it was because other departments of the State were not directed with the same fearless energy and high efficiency as his own. With his rigid logical argument, and brilliant oratorical attacks, and with his motto 'renunciation is abdication'—we might well be satisfied that he will enable France to rise equal to its present crisis and hold up her head with as great an honour as ever.

PRESIDENT WILSON.

It has been said that President Wilson possesses "the noblest mind and broadest sympathy of all who have aspired to the Presidential chair since the election of the author of the Declaration of Independence." For, in fact few things in political history have been more dramatic than the immediate consequence of Dr. Wilson's entry into public life. He is an intellectual giant compared with the bulk of American politicians. He is a masterful personality in the world of politics; and in private life he is essentially a laughing philosopher.

Dr. Woodrow Wilson was born at Stanton, in Virginia, in 1858. He graduated at Princeton when he was twenty-one and proceeded to higher degrees at the famous John Hopkins University and the University of Virginia. For a little while he practised at the bar. But in 1890 he took up an academic career and was appointed to the Chair of Jurisprudence and Politics at Princeton. Twelve years later he became President of his own University. He has thus passed fifteen years of his life in the lecture room and eight more as President of the Princeton University.

In 1910 he became Governor of New Jersey and with his vivid grasp of ideas and a sensible turn for practicality he slowly won the heart of the Democrats. He entered politics with an endowment of culture and philosophy and a character far superior to that of the current "bosses" in America. As Mr. A. G. Gardiner says "he has what Mr. Chamberlain never had, what Mr. Lloyd George, with all his fine intuitions and democratic sympathies, has not—a considered philosophy of politics. It is a philosophy warmed with a generous humanity and a sincere vision." But above all he is a practical visionary:—

I am accused of being a Radical. If to seek to go to the root is to be a Radical, a Radical I am. After all, everything that flowers in beauty in the air of heaven draws its fairness, its vigor from its roots; nothing living can blossom into fruitage unless through flourishing stalks deep-planted in the common soil. Up from that soil, up from the silent bosom of the earth rise the currents of life and energy. Up from the common soil, up from the great heart of the people, rise joyously to-day streams of hope and determination that are bound to renew the face of the earth in glory. I tell you that the so-called Radicalism of our time is simply the effort of nature to release the generous energies of our people. This great American people is at the bottom just, virtuous and hopeful; the roots of its being are in the soil of what is lovely, pure and of good report; and the need of the hour is just that Radicalism that will clear a way for the realization of the aspirations of a sturdy race.

M. ADOLPHE MAX.

When the history of the War comes to be written there is sure to be a page recording the heroism of the Burgomaster of Brussels. He has proved to the world that heroism is not confined to the battlefield. The first citizen of a conquered capital, he mastered the Prussian Bully with his wit which proved more than a match for the deadliest of armaments. King Albert fought with his sword, but this great civilian stood by his post with no more weapons than his tact and his smile. When the Germans made their famous parade march on Brussels "the little burgomaster could not be prevented from riding at the head of the heartless procession to show that he was not a captive, but the unwilling host of intruding guests."

Adolphe Max was originally on the staff of *L'Indépendance Belge* and a member of the Liberal Organisation of Belgium. He then became advocate of the Court of Appeal and entered politics. Though far too young for the high office, he was in 1909 elected Burgomaster of Brussels as a Moderate Liberal candidate.

The Burgomaster's wonderful understanding of the character of the people of Belgium gave him the happiest opportunity of negotiating with the invaders on their behalf. For weeks, with the spirit of the "passive resister," he defied the haughty intruder with his magnificent diplomacy. The Burgomaster's temper, discretion and good humour saved for some time the destruction of the beautiful city.

And the citizens of Brussels knew their man and carried out his commands with military discipline. It is pathetic to read the courageous counsels of the Burgomaster to his fellow citizens on the approach of the enemy. With patriotic courage he bade them be Belgians at heart and never betray their cause, nor ruin themselves by vain molestations. To this appeal he added: "As long as I am alive and at liberty I will protect with all my strength the rights and dignities of my fellow citizens. * * * Fellow citizens, whatever happens listen to the voice of your Burgomaster and support and maintain him. He will not betray your confidence."

He proved as true as his word. And the Germans fearing his tremendous influence found a pretext to arrest and imprison him. But the heroism of the Burgomaster in these trying times stands in clear relief amidst all the pathos of the piteous story of Belgium.



ADMIRAL PRINCE LOUIS OF
BATTENBERG, °



MR. LLOYD GEORGE
AS ADMIRAL NELSON,



LORD FISHER.



MR. BONAR LAW.



MR. JOHN REDMOND.



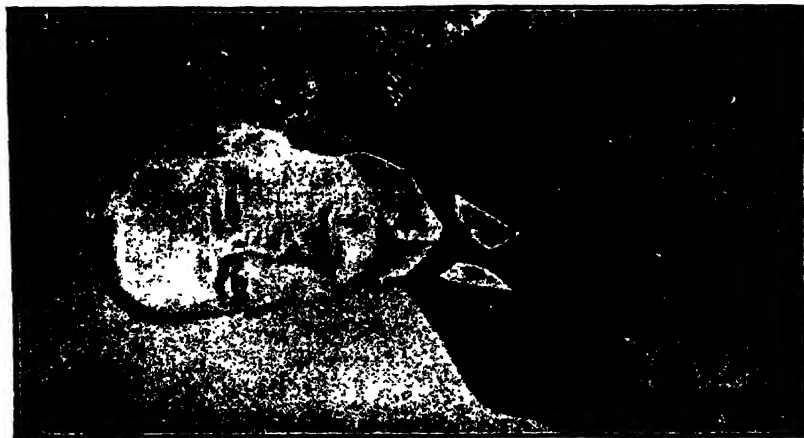
M. ADOLPHE MAX.



PRESIDENT WILSON



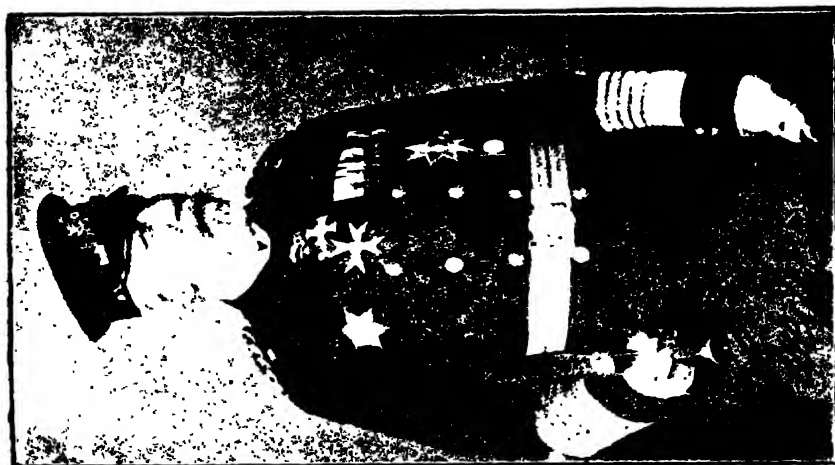
H. H. THE AGA KHAN.



KRUPP VON BOHLEN.



PRINCE VON BULO



PRINCE CHNOWSK.

MR. J. E. REDMOND.

John Edward Redmond, M.P. the leader of the Nationalist Party in Ireland is the son of the late W. A. Redmond, M. P. he was educated in Trinity College, Dublin and passed out as Barrister from Gray's Inn in 1886. He entered Parliament in 1881, and came under the influence of Charles Stewart Parnell whose cloak he now wears. Mr. Redmond is the possessor of polished manners and is a typical example of a thorough Irish gentleman of the squire class. Mr. Parnell, though he valued Redmond as a fellow-worker and supporter, had no idea of his talents and capacity as a Party leader. It was only when the Parnell *fiasco* occurred that John Redmond came to the front. The Irish party was divided as to the leadership of Parnell, the majority being against Parnell thinking that the claims of Ireland were greater than loyalty to Parnell. John Redmond was on the side of the minority who were led by Parnell. The fierce controversy that resulted from this division of views ended with Parnell's sudden death and John Redmond became leader of the minority and from that time has demonstrated his capacity for a Parliamentary leader's position. While John Redmond was the leader of the minority party John Dillon led the majority side. Later on, John Dillon saw the weakness of a divided party and refusing to be re-elected, John Redmond by universal consent assumed the leadership which he has held so ably and with so much tact. A man of ample private means Mr. Redmond devotes all his time to politics, and the House of Commons has come to recognise his influence. He has the confidence of his countrymen in England and Ireland and of his compatriots in Scotland and the United States. His moderation and good sense in the Ulster Crisis has been recognised and is in remarkable contrast with the theatrical and melodramatic conduct of Sir Edward Carson, while his leadership and loyalty to Great Britain as a whole, during the present war has raised him in the estimation of the whole country. As an orator he has a melodious utterance. He balances his sentences with consummate skill and is often quite brilliant in his phraseology. He is undoubtedly a very eloquent speaker. His voice is of considerable strength and volume with a variety of intonation which rescues it from monotony. John Redmond is still young and has a great future before him.

KRUPP VON BOHLEN.

When Armageddon descended on Europe the one name that was in the lips of all was Krupp. And Krupp is a national institution in Germany, an institution as sacred as the House of the Hohenzollerns. For half a century, fifty-two war offices and general staffs throughout the world have fed the factory fat. We are told that twenty-three states in Europe, eighteen in America, six in Asia and five in Africa are permanently on the list of Krupp's purchasers. "Since the Great Exhibition at London in 1851," says the author of "Men Around the Kaiser," when an obscure Rhenish steel-maker from Essen electrified the military universe with a pounder of flawless cast steel the German Army and Navy have brought 29,000 Krupp guns." And these are to day thundering from the ramparts of the German lines.

Mr. Frederick William Wile, the *Daily Mail* correspondent in Berlin, describes Dr. Krupp Von Bohlen as a scholarly-looking man, youthful and of modest bearing and courtly manner. "He is the husband of the 'Cannon queen,' and managing director of the vast arsenal of which she is the sole owner. But he has since ceased to be simply the man who married 'the greatest fortune in Germany.' He is in reality the master of Essen and a worthy leader of the greatest industrial organization in the world. Says Mr. Wile, "He has proved that he is not an accident. The 75,000 members of the Krupp staff and the community of 300,000 souls whom they represent look up to Krupp Von Bohlen with the same spirit of reverential loyalty which inspired three generations of workmen to regard the Krupps as their liege lords. They too would be ready to follow where Krupp Von Bohlen leads, behind the guns and the impenetrable armour they themselves have forged."

Mr. Wile gives a vivid description of the great organization at Essen. The picture shows the gigantic character of the enterprise.

These great works of the house of Krupps are the symbol of the Teutonic spirit of enterprise, organization and efficiency. The teachings of Nietzsche and Trietschke are thus completed by the House of Krupps whose engines of destruction are now thundering on the banks of the Ypres and the Marne and from the ramparts of Metz and Konigsburg.

PRINCE LICHNOWSKY.

Some time ago it was announced that Prince Lichnowsky, the German Ambassador at the Court of St. James was, by order of the Kaiser, in disgrace in Berlin. The cause of this imperial disfavour is presumably Prince Lichnowsky's inability to anticipate the British participation in the continental war. The Prince is a peace-loving gentleman of high social standing and intellectual attainments and a diplomat of clear headedness and common sense. If he did not warn the Kaiser of the British intervention, he was perhaps as ignorant of the unscrupulous methods of the German War Office. He did not believe that his Fatherland would violate the neutrality of Belgium.

Prince Karl Maximilian Lichnowsky was appointed ambassador in October, 1912 in succession to the late Baron Marshall. Fully recognising the inevitable rivalry between Great Britain and Germany, Prince Lichnowsky was always aware of the difficulties of the problem alike in its technical and political bearing. He had no illusions on naval politics. He was painfully conscious of Britain's supremacy on the sea which he would fain transfer to his Fatherland. But he knew also that that was a dream. From time to time he struck upon the knotty problem in various ways. Six years ago he found fault with British statesmen and used very strong words against them. He called the cry to improve the navy but a mere bogey to awaken England from her decadence. But then he changed his mind in four years and there was no warmer friend of England than the Prince. He actually defended Britain's right to possess a mighty fleet.

Indeed the advent of Prince Lichnowsky in London was highly appreciated. For unlike many a German, the Prince was the most sociable of men, lived among London society and won the esteem of the *élite* of the London world. His charming manners and his easy disposition made him quite at home in England. He was obviously for an Anglo-German *Entente* based on "mutual confidence and common aims." Only he was searching for a *modus vivendi* for a happy coalition. But his dream came to an end abruptly. While he was yet wondering what to do, the German army was half-way in Belgium and a considerable part of the world ablaze with the cry of war.

LORD FISHER

The recall of Lord Fisher as the First Sea Lord of the Admiralty was only a matter of course. He is the Kitchener of the Navy and the nation and the navy alike are grateful to him for his active participation at this grave crisis. In spite of his burden of years the navy can think of no more fitting chief to lead it in the ensuing adventure against the German marauders. He is deemed the right man in the right place.

But his acceptance of this high office is associated with another incident which is somewhat of a sad recollection to the British Navy and the British Nation. And that is the inevitable departure of his illustrious predecessor. It is sad to think that the accident of birth and rigours of what has become a race war should have deprived the British Navy of the services of so eminent a sailor as Prince Louis of Battenburg. Both the King and Mr. Winston Churchill have testified to the magnificent services of this sailor Prince. But when once His Royal Highness decided to quit the service which he held with such honour and distinction, the next choice was almost a popular demand for the good old "Jacky Fisher," then in his well-earned retirement.

Lord Fisher's characteristics are known throughout the Empire and this grim old seaman will take care of the German Navy and teach them the true significance of "The Day." He is of the type of the old English captains—Drake and Hawkins and Rodney. A writer in the *World's Work* compares his sayings to the aphorisms of Frederick the Great. In daring and persistence he is unequalled. Why should we be reticent about his ruthlessness? He is a match for the German. Here is his own description of a speech of his at the Hague Conference in 1899, which our English contemporary has aptly quoted :—

"The humanising of war! You might as well talk of humanising Hell! When a silly ass at the Hague got up and talked about the amenities of civilised warfare, putting your prisoners' feet in hot water and giving them gruel, my reply, I regret to say, was considered totally unfit for publication. As if war could be civilised! If I am in command when war breaks out, I shall issue as my commands :

"The essence of war is violence. Moderation in war is imbecility. Hit first; hit hard; hit everywhere."

Lord Fisher says: "I think the finest epitaph I know is that of one of Nelson's captains: 'Death found him fighting.'"

It will be a hot day for the German Navy to deal with such a man.

LORD HALDANE.

The Right Hon'ble Richard Burdon Haldane, First Viscount of Cloanden F. R. S. Kt., Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain since 1912, member of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, P.C.; L.L.D., Rector of Edinburgh University, Chancellor of the University of Bristol, is the son of the late Robert Haldane of Cloanden W. S. and of Mary Elizabeth Burdon Sanderson. He was educated at the Edinburgh Academy and at the Edinburgh and Gottingen Universities. From 1892—94 he filled the place of Gifford Lecturer in St. Andrew's University. He entered Parliament in 1885, as member for Haddingtonshire. Lord Haldane was born in 1856. At Edinburgh University he was phenomenally proficient in philosophy and at Gottingen he eagerly absorbed the doctrines of the great German thinkers Kant, Hegel, Fichte and Schopenhauer. He speaks German like a native and, when there, made a careful study of the German system of education.

In 1877, young Haldane decided to go in for the study of Law and read in Chamber's and became Barrister-at-law in 1879, and Queen's Council in 1890. His opportunity did not come till he was 24 years of age and, although for the first year or two of practice his income was limited to two figures for the year—for he had no influence and no solicitor friends—before five years of work he had established a reputation and when only 33 years of age took silk. From that time his income was beyond all expectations. He is known to have earned £15,000 in one year refusing £5,000 worth of further demands. His knowledge is declared to be encyclopædic, his labour untiring and his versatility astonishing. His only recreation except on rare occasions when he engages in a walk on a Scotch moor is variety in his occupation. Of athletic build, his face is large and massive, the only sign of a student about him being the colourless whiteness of his complexion. He has been called the "Brain of the Empire" and one of his chief characteristics is that he can manage with only four hours of sleep out of the twenty-four.

His legal practice has not been confined to England and he has been retained by Colonial Governments to conduct their cases. It is said that on one occasion, within the space of a fortnight, he argued appeals in connection with the Privy Council from Burma (Buddhist Law), New Zealand (Maori Custom), the Cape (Roman Dutch

Law), Bombay (Mahomedan Law), the Channel Islands (Italian French and Roman Law) and Bengal (Hindu Law.) His studies of the German educational system stood him in extraordinary good stead as President of the Board of Education. He is a strong advocate for higher education, that, in his opinion, being the only basis of efficiency and he never was tired of pointing to Germany as an example. He has rendered service to every possible kind of committee and in 1905, accepted the position of Secretary of State for War which he held for seven years. As War Lord he ceaselessly urged the construction of the best possible weapons of destruction and interested himself greatly in the study of projectiles. His opinion of all the defence measures of England has been that the Navy is the main arm of protection and he was insistent in recommending that merit and ability and not seniority should be the principle in selecting Admirals. Mr. Haldane when War Minister cherished the idea of a National Army formed of the manhood of the country, trained and organised on volunteer lines—such for instance as Earl Kitchener is at this eleventh hour organising for employment against the enemy. Personally, Lord Haldane is urbanity itself while he impresses every one with whom he comes in contact, with a reserve force which is colossal. Lord Haldane is a practised speaker and has a marvellous knack of marshalling his facts and building up arguments born of his legal work. He has been known to speak for 2½ hours without faltering for a word, or referring to his notes. His oratory on the other hand is in no way noteworthy. Some Parliamentary orators prefer the stimulating atmosphere of the House of Commons, to the rigid calm of that of the House of Lords, but Lord Haldane is not deterred from saying what he has to say by any considerations of what his audience is composed. He has something to say and he says it. As Colonial Secretary, or as Foreign Secretary, Lord Haldane would have done better perhaps than as War Minister, but he has attained what in early life he was ambitious of securing the Lord High Chancellorship of England. Lord Haldane has been, during his busy life, a prolific author. "Essays in Parliamentary Criticism," the "Life of Adam Smith," "Schopenhauer's World as Will and Idea," "Education and Empire," "the Path-way to Reality" are some of his better known works. Lord Haldane has never married. He is no slave to party, however, but a philosopher and broad-minded student of affairs.

MR. BONAR LAW.

The Right Hon'ble Andrew Bonar Law, leader of the opposition in the House of Commons since 1911, is the son of a Presbyterian Minister, the Rev. James Law of New Brunswick, Canada, where he was born six and fifty years ago. His mother was also Scotch and belonged to Glasgow. Mr. Law takes his name after Dr. Andrew Bonar, author of the "Life of Dr. McCheyn," a book which his father much admired. When only twelve years old he crossed the Atlantic and became a student in the High School at Glasgow which he left, when 16 years of age, to join the firm of William Hedstone and Sons, Iron Merchants in Glasgow, of which his uncle was the head. Twelve years later he became partner in the firm of William Jacks and Co.; of Glasgow. From 1900 to 1906 he was Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade, and in 1906 entered Parliament for Blackfriars, a division of Glasgow. He represented the Dulwich Division of Camberwell from 1906-1910 and in that year contested the seat at Manchester. He has been Chairman of the Glasgow Iron Trade Association, and when he became Leader of the Opposition in 1911 "all the world wondered," for Mr. Bonar Law has not had the adventitious support of birth or high influence. He is a successful business man who has made a competence at the iron trade. He is a supporter of women suffrage, and a total abstainer and in early years was a Sunday School teacher. His present position is all the more extraordinary. He is an excellent foil to his brilliant predecessor Mr. Balfour, who is an aristocrat to the finger tips. Mr. Bonar Law is a man of the people with a tinge of the argumentative swashbuckler in his methods. At the last coronation he became a Privy Counsellor and on Mr. Balfour's retirement Leader of the Opposition.

Never in history perhaps, has a man of Mr. Bonar Law's birth and antecedents filled such a position in the Tory ranks. Mr. Law married Miss Annie Rooley, who made an affectionate and charming wife as long as she lived. The following is a pen-picture of Mr. Bonar Law when he was 21 years old—"Fair-haired, fair-complexioned, gentle of manner, quiet of voice, with a singularly winning smile he was possessed of an imperturbably good temper and a strong sense of humour and there was never any one more careful of others' pleasure nor more careless of small personal worries or grievances." In Parliamentary debate his gentleness of manner and voice has on

more than one instanceⁿ been forgotten. Mr. Bonar Law's chief characteristic is thoroughness—he has an infinite capacity for taking pains. The pen-picture of 30 years ago differs somewhat from what Mr. Law is now; "He is a type by himself" says a writer: "Deep-sunk eyes, a big square jaw, an upright forehead, a straight mouth covered by somewhat drooping moustache, give at first glance an impression of a man deeply reflective, touched with melancholy but dominated by the recognition of the necessity for strong and forcible action. Here is rather the man who, having convinced himself that a certain course of action is necessary, will work without personal ostentation with a certain grim ruthlessness until his object is all attained." He is an advocate for Tariff reform, is against Disendowment and the Irish Nationalist domination, Home rule and disunion of the British Empire and against the Petrol tax and in favour of the Cocoa duties. He is absolutely against the policy of Mr. Asquith. When he assumed the leadership, he stated that it was not necessary that a new leader should frame a new policy. He said "my only hope of being of service to our party is by urging that party to move straight forward without haste, but without rest, to the goal towards which we aim. That goal is, in the first place, to get rid of a Government which has from the first been a danger to the country and which is now tearing down the destructive path with ever-increasing velocity." This last sentence is not very clear, but the meaning of Mr. Law is not difficult to formulate. He is a lucid and trenchant speaker, and he would not have been chosen for leadership were it not for his powers of speech. "As a Parliamentary and public speaker he possesses a gift unseen since the late Lord Salisbury—that of delivering a sustained and closely reasoned argument or attack for an hour without a single note. In part the result of an astonishing memory, in part of great intellectual quickness, this faculty as it is developed by practice, cannot fail to place him in the forefront of British Parliamentary speakers," says Lord Curzon.

Since the war broke out Mr. Bonar Law has not opposed Mr. Asquith's Government on any question affecting the operations necessary for the war. Liberal and Conservative have stood shoulder to shoulder like brothers in determining to fight the war to a finish.

THE RISE OF THE BALKANS

BY MR. N. M. MUZUMDAR, B A., B. SC., (LOND.)

FIVE centuries of oppression and mis-rule by an "army of occupation." A long and a bitter night of darkness. At last a Balkan League. And then the day-break, and then—another struggle with another foe. This sums up the history of "one of the fairest regions of the world." The Ottoman Empire even in the height of its day, when it included the whole Balkan region and even Hungary, was nothing but a mass of the most diverse nations and fragments of nations four times as populous as the "army of occupation" that swayed over them. And the history of the Balkans is but the history of the unification and growth of these diverse fragments, too often and too long weakened by rivalries among themselves, into distinct and separate nationalities. It is the story of the retreat of Turkey from Europe.

The "grim, raw races" of the Balkans, as Mr. Lytton, the future Governor-General of India, once described them, are but the descendants of the ancient Greeks, Thracians and Illyrians, together with the Aryan Slavs that crossed over the Danube in the fifth century, and the Turanian Bulgars who came from Central Asia in the seventh. In three centuries the immigrant invaders were absorbed, and in contact with the civilisation of Byzantium outgrew their barbarism. Four hundred years pass by, and they are thrust into darkness again by invaders from the South. Few scenes in human history impress one more profoundly than the night of 28th May, 1453 when Sultan Mahomet II, the greatest of the great Sultans, a young man of boundless ambition, ordered the storming of Constantinople. With the fall of Constantinople fell the last of the Cæsars, fell the Byzantium Empire, and fell also the light of that Empire, and the civilisation of those regions. It was the wreckage of the Slavic nations, and the beginning of the long night of Turkish darkness.

The fall of Constantinople established the Turkish Empire in Europe. With a strong foothold on Constantinople the Turkish armies overran the Balkans. Bulgaria was annexed. Serbia became a Turkish Province. Albania followed in 1459. Bosnia fell in 1465. And Greece, the ancient land of arts and letters, suffered the same fate. The Turkish tide rolled on and on, and in

two hundred years reached the gates of Vienna. Here, finally, it was checked. An Empire based on nothing but conquest had over-grown itself. Turkey was not a conquering nation capable of absorbing the conquered, or even being absorbed by them. Turkey was but a conquering army, and when conquest ceased, came the recoil and the demoralization. It has taken three centuries and a half from the defeat at Vienna for this demoralization and decadence to work itself out, and for the Turkish tide to recede from Vienna to the suburbs of Constantinople.

The supremacy of Turkey was always bound up with the maintenance of the Turks as a dominant caste. Any humanizing of the Turkish administration would have meant the destruction of that supremacy. The fight of the Balkan races was therefore a fight against an inhuman supremacy. It was not till a hundred years after the retreat from Vienna that the Treaty of Kainardji in 1775 placed Russia for the first time as the special protector of the Christian subjects of the Sultan. Austria, too, started "on her Eastern route." And the Austro-Russian move, even if not altogether dictated by reasons of humanity, was the dawn of a new day for the Balkans. It kindled the first sparks of insurrection among the Greeks and the Servians. Still, fifty years were to elapse before Greece could recover its long lost liberties, and a hundred years before a Servian king could declare the end of Turkish suzerainty. The reign of Sultan Abdul Hamid dragged down the Ottoman Empire further, and finally brought it to the position of a state that could not subsist but "by the toleration of Europe and the protection of at least one great Power."

The atrocity with which the Bulgarian revolt of 1876 was put down by Turkey roused at last the conscience of Europe. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet on the Balkan horrors, caused a shudder that demanded immediate reform. The outburst in Europe roused Serbia. Serbia declared war on Turkey. Montenegro followed. But both were defeated, and only saved from being crushed out of existence by a Russian ultimatum to Turkey, the result being a return to the *status quo*. A long series of "conferences" met at Constantinople to "propose changes" in the administration of European Turkey. Turkey replied by proclaiming

a national constitution. And Russia, tired at length of European inaction, declared war herself. The Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78, severe and prolonged though it was, brought Russia almost within sight of Constantinople. Great Britain, however, as a great Moslem power, stopped this victorious advance by mobilising its army and sending its fleet across the Dardanelles. Russia concluded peace with Turkey at San Stefano, on the basis of the recognition of Serbia, Montenegro and Roumania as independent principalities; a "big" Bulgaria as an autonomous principality of Turkey; and Bosnia and Herzegovina with free institutions under the protection of Austria and Russia. The Powers hurriedly met at Berlin, charged with the revision of the treaty of San Stefano, and presided over by Bismarck, "the honest broker" for all parties. The Berlin Congress summarily revised the treaty and the Treaty of Berlin that followed gave up the idea of a "big" Bulgaria, created instead another autonomous province of Turkey, Eastern Rumania; made Bulgaria a tributary state of Turkey under a Prince elected by the people and confirmed by the Porte; and gave Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria, for the purpose of "maintaining order," to the bitter resentment of Russia. (The "honest broker" was only rewarding Austria for her neutrality in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870) Roumania, Serbia and Montenegro were made sovereign States, and the Powers undertook to "use their good offices" to get Greece, Thessaly and Epirus. Bosnia, however, stood out against Austria till 1882, and Greece did not get Thessaly and part of Epirus till 1881. The Balkan States very soon attempted to revise the revision of the Powers. The Rumanian revolt of 1885 was followed by Bulgaria annexing Eastern Rumania. Serbia declared at once war on Bulgaria, and Greece threatened Turkey. The concert of Europe was, however, strong enough to hold them back, and the Treaty of Berlin remained for thirty years the written constitution of the Balkans.

But there were two provinces of Turkey for which the Berlin Treaty was a piece of blank paper. All that the Powers could do for Armenia and Macedonia was to "press" the Porte for "reforms." From 1894 to 1896 terrible massacres took place in Armenia, and a scheme of reform was forthwith "presented" by the Powers. In 1897 Crete proclaimed union with Greece, and the Greco-Turkish war of that year followed. The defeated Greeks were only saved by the diplomatic compromise of the Powers, and Crete remained

Turkish. The very next year, however, massacres broke out in Crete, and the British Vice-Consul in Candia was murdered. The British Admiral bombarded the town and practically ended Turkish suzerainty over the island. The Macedonians left outside the Berlin settlement revolted in 1903 to compel the intervention of the Powers—only to be put down with fire and sword. Austria and Russia once more urged reforms on Turkey to be carried out under the supervision of their agents. And an international demonstration in 1905 secured the appointment of an international finance Commission. The foreign officials had, however, no real power, and the Commission achieved little. The Treaty of Berlin, thus, while diminishing the Balkan possessions of the Sultan left enough material for future trouble. And diplomacy could neither solve the problems of the Balkans nor shelve them.

In 1908 Austria obtained permission to survey for a railway to the Sanjak of Novi Bazar. The Austro-Russian harmony, that had been revived since 1897, ended. The meeting of King Edward and the Czar gave rise to another programme of Macedonian reform. But a crisis was looming over Turkey. The "Young Turks" had been working hard from Paris and London, pointing to the corruption and tyranny of the existing regime and the threatened partition of the country. As a result, in July 1908, the situation in Turkey underwent a dramatic change and a revolution broke out. The Young Turks proclaimed the national constitution of 1876, and threatened to march on Constantinople. Sultan Abdul Hamid yielded, and granted at length a Parliament.

The bloodless triumph of the Young Turks, the triumph of liberal ideas of "Justice, Fraternity and Equality," as appeared to be then, raised high hopes in Europe. Tyranny had at length been dethroned, and the old regime seemed to have gone to pieces once for all under the scorn and the wrath aroused by Enver and Niazi. The day after the revolution the *Tourkic Nouvelle*, the organ of the Ottoman Liberal Party, wrote:

"The cruel despotism, the ferocious oppression, and the savage tyranny under which the Ottoman nation has laboured for 32 years, have come to an end."

A new order of things seemed to have been established in a day in a land so long and bitterly tried. The "Committee of Union and Progress" set to work, set before itself the solution of the great problems of Turkey involving "the

peace and welfare of the present," and "the hope of the future," exhorted men of all ranks and races to forget the wrongs of the past, to accept the new order, Christians, Moslems, Israelites, to be *Ottomans* above all, and to sink all their local differences in the interest of *common Ottoman nationality*.—A lofty ambition, but a dream!

Von Moltke once wrote that "reform in Turkey consists above everything in externals, in names and in schemes." Hopes raised so high by the Young Turks soon fell to the ground. In less than a few months not even the name of the glorious July structure remained. The government of the country was placed under the direction of a "political club." And the same old terrorism survived the so-called "regeneration of Turkey." Step by step, the neo-Turks arrived at open war with the principles and ideas they had started with, till they, in direct and flagrant violation of the constitution, overthrew Kaimil Pasha, the great Grand Vizier, who had boldly announced to the *Matin* on New Year's Day:

"We shall constitute a force which we will place at the service of Right, Justice and Humanity. We will follow in the footsteps of France, and like her, within our own special domain of Islam, we will teach the brotherhood of peoples and respect for the rights of others."

On the 5th of October 1908 in a manifesto to his people and to Europe, Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria threw off the suzerainty of Turkey and established an independent kingdom. In the same month Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bitter first fruits of the Young Turkish rule! The Committee of "Union and Progress," though indignant at the loss of three great provinces, accepted the inevitable, and consoled themselves with a financial indemnity from Austria and Bulgaria, the Powers acquiescing in the new arrangement. Crete followed suit in tearing up the Treaty of Berlin, and proclaimed once more union with France. Such was the beginning of the new regime that promised so much. Its rigorous policy of centralisation from Salonica, far from improving the administration irritated the Balkan nationalities. And the principle of the fusion of the non-Moslem races into a common Ottoman nationality soon turned out to be an enterprise as chimerical as dangerous.

The quarrels and the blunders of the new reformers were an admirable opportunity for the Sultan. In April 1909 a revolution broke out in

Constantinople, and the Young Turks fled. But the Macedonian troops remained loyal to the new Constitution, and in a few days Shevket Pasha fought his way into Constantinople. Abdul Hamid was deposed and his long imprisoned brother was brought on the Ottoman throne. The Young Turks gained a victory, but threw away its warning. They roughly disarmed Macedonia, goaded Albania into revolt, left unpunished the perpetrators of another massacre in Armenia, and instead of reforming the administration of the various provinces centralised themselves into a military government under German tutelage. Europe was disappointed in the new Rulers of Turkey. The reforms once confidently expected did not come. And the Balkan States were driven at length to take matters in their own hands.

Early in 1912 Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece formed the "Balkan League," it is supposed under the influence of the able Greek statesman M. Venizelos, and on the basis of a defensive alliance. The weakness of Turkey after her war with Italy was an opportunity to free Macedonia at last from Turkish rule. The Turkish butchery of the Bulgarians at Kuchana and of the Serbs in Berane roused the war-fever in Bulgaria and Macedonia. On the 1st of October 1912 the armies of the League were suddenly mobilised, Turkey anticipating the League by a few hours. Montenegro had a frontier dispute with Turkey, and on the 8th Montenegro declared war on her. The great Powers hurried, and two days later presented a collective note to Turkey to discuss immediately with the Sublime Porte the "question of reforms" under the Berlin Treaty of 1878. Turkey replied that reforms could only be introduced without foreign interference. On the 14th of the month, the Balkan Allies presented a note to her to grant within six months reforms in Macedonia in accordance with the Berlin treaty, to be carried out under their supervision and that of the Powers. Turkey replied three days later by declaring war on Bulgaria and Serbia leaving Greece out, which, however, immediately declared war on her. The Balkans blazed up, and the great Powers could only sit round the conflagration agreeing to "localise the trouble."

Six days after the declaration of war the Bulgarians and Servians defeated the Turks at Kirk, Killise and Kumavoso. In twelve days Turkey lost the whole of Thrace. In a month Macedonia was lost by the surrender of Salonika, the "gem of the *Ægean*." By the middle of November, the Greek fleet had captured most of the *Ægean* islands, and the Bulgarians advanced

to Chataldja, within twenty miles of Constantinople. The dread of cholera, however, stopped the Bulgarian Commander. Constantinople was saved, and Nazim Pasha seizing his opportunity strengthened the lines at Chataldja. A Peace Conference met in London, and the war was concluded by the Treaty of London of the 30th of May 1913, Turkey ceding to the Balkan Allies all territories across the Enos-Midia line together with Crete, and leaving the future of Albania and the Aegean Islands to the Powers.

Hardly was the ink dry on the Treaty when war clouds gathered again owing to disagreements between the Allies as to the division of the ceded territories. On June 29th 1913, the second Balkan War broke out. Bulgaria suddenly attacked its allies. Servia and Greece took up the challenge. In a week they crossed the Bulgarian frontier. On July 10th Roumania intervened to enforce peace, invaded Bulgaria, and threatened to march on Sofia. The plight of the "Allies" encouraged Turkey to cross the Enos-Midia line and re-occupy Adrianople. Bulgaria was brought on its knees. A Peace Conference met at Bucharest on July 30th, and on August 30th peace was finally signed by the Balkan States delimiting their new frontiers. The result of the two wars was that Turkey lost Macedonia, Thrace and most of the Aegean Islands. Albania became autonomous. Macedonia was divided between Greece, Bulgaria and Servia, Montenegro getting a part of Servian territory and Roumania a part of Bulgarian. Bulgaria annexed also Thrace to the Enos-Midia line, excluding Adrianople. The settlement thus brought Bulgaria on the Aegean. Servia obtained 15,000 sq. miles of new territory, almost doubling herself, and thus relieving herself to some extent from the economic subjugation of Austria, though still left, alone of all the countries of Europe (excepting Switzerland) with no access to the sea. The map of the Balkans was completely recast.

The expulsion of the Turkish Empire from Europe, though it did not bring about the bigger and dreaded scramble for its territory, brought before Europe the problem of a great Balkanic Federation, and the problem of the antagonism between the Teuton and the Slav. Already after the war there was talk of a Federation. A Bulgarian Foreign Minister even announced that a confederation was coming and that, if she reformed herself, Turkey too might be in it. A strong confederation would have checked to some extent the conflict between the Teuton and the Slav. But the retreat of Turkey from Europe meant

a "chance" for Austria-Hungary, a chance to go further "on her Eastern Route." And before a Balkanic confederation could be formed Austria manœuvred for a dash. The Austrian idea of a South Slavonic Empire, of which the recognized exponent was the late Crown Prince, was revived. The Crown Prince paid for it with his life. But Austria was determined to go on.

Austrian policy, as revealed in the *entente* with Russia in 1897, had been to put off the day when the fate of European Turkey should be decided. That *entente* broke up in 1908 when she finally annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina to the bitter resentment of Russia. After the Balkan wars, however, and especially after the new arrangements, the day could no longer be put off. And the Austrian statesmen of 1914 saw in the youth and exhaustion of the Balkan states a chance to push ahead, to reach Novi Bazaar, perchance to get another thorny throne, and come out on the Aegean. Now was the time to strike, she thought. And she struck,—struck Servia with an impossible ultimatum, with what consequences the future and the recoil will tell. Servia's triumph in the Balkan wars had whetted the appetite of Austria. But it was the triumph of a state that had helped to liberate the Balkans, and end the long Turkish night. A wanton attack, a ruthless attack on a state exhausted by wars in such a cause. Cruel fate that at the dawn of a new day that state should be faced with another struggle, this time with another foe.

There is a close and perhaps a fateful parallelism between the Austrian situation of to-day and the Turkish situation of yesterday. In two-thirds of the Austro-Hungarian Empire the Austrian is a stranger. Of the fifty millions in the Empire nearly twenty-five millions are Slavs, including five million Serbs on the Austrian side of the Danube. Bohemians, Hungarians, Poles, Germans, Magayars, Croatians, Dalmatians, Ruthenians, Italians, Czechs, Slovaks, Rumanians, Slovenians and Slavs,—a mosaic of races! A fragile mass! The fate of Turkey yesterday may be the fate of Austria to-morrow.—*Behind* the Austrian aggression one did not fail to perceive the shadows of other arms. Addressing a meeting of Servians in Paris many years ago, General Skobelev, the hero of the Russo-Turkish War, remarked: "We are the victims of a foreigner's intrigue. Do you know who he is? It is the German. Never forget it. Our enemy is the German. The battle between the German and the Slav is inevitable. It will be long, bloody and terrible, but the Slav will triumph."—Prophetic words!

CHINA : A. SKETCH OF ITS HISTORY

BY PROF. K. B. RAMANATHAN, M.A.

UNLIKE the Hindu, the Chinaman has a great regard for history, and to preserve authenticated accounts of the chief historic events of the empire has been one of the recognised duties of the Government. We have Chinese history preserving names of emperors and conquerors and describing remarkable events from a time anterior to that of Noah's flood. We do not feel disposed to bestow on our readers the whole tediousness of recounting the rise and decay of various dynasties or the exploits of particular kings. A sketch in the broadest outline of the salient features of Chinese history must suffice for the present purpose.

EARLY CHINA.

The people are supposed to have migrated from a region on the southern shore of the Caspian Sea about the 23rd century B.C. The language and the religious and social institutions seem to show Akkadian affinities. Originally nomads, the Chinese betook themselves to agriculture on their occupation of the rich plains watered by the Yanktse and the Hoangho. From a tribal system a vast feudal system was evolved and the subdivision of fiefs left very little power to the liege-lord. Hoangti put down the various rulers and proclaimed himself sole ruler, saying there could be but one ruler in a nation as but one sun in the sky. To secure China from the inroads of the Tartars he began the construction of the famous Chinese Wall which was completed in 211 B. C. He patronised astronomy and revised the calendar and abolished many useless ceremonies. In his plan of unification of the empire he incurred the hostility of the *literati* whom he put down with a high hand, burning all books except those on medicine, agriculture, &c. The successors of Hoangti were not equal to the task of preserving intact the inheritance left them and principalities sprang up here and there till the

86—73 B. C.

Kaoti of the Han dynasty.

In this reign, means of communication were improved, the first suspension bridges constructed, and the effects of the vandalism of Hoangti

minimised by the encouragement of the efforts of the *literati* to restore the destroyed classics. It was

58—76 A. D.

another Han—Mingti—who was instrumental in

introducing Buddhism into China where it has firmly established its hold.

From the fall of the last Han to the rise of the first Tang is an interval of nearly 400 years (220-618 A. D.) The empire split up into three and later on into six principalities which waged internecine wars with one another. The only interesting event of the period is Fahsien's journey to India, begun about 400 A.D. and lasting for fourteen years, at the end of which he returned with a library of books and manuscripts utilised in the record of his travels. With the rise of the Tang dynasty began the golden age of Chinese Literature, and there was then also an attempt at revivalism of the teachings of Confucius which had been thrown into the shade by the new gospel of Buddha. We hear now of the Korean question of the Japa-

627—650 A. D.

nese interference with the Korean affairs. Taotsong

the greatest of the Tangs tried unsuccessfully to subdue the refractory Koreans, but his successor

650—684 A.D.

Kaotsong or rather his Empress Wu had better suc-

cess. The Japanese had been invited by the king of Korea to help him. The Empress Wu threw all her energies into the struggle and had the combined fleet of the Japanese and the Koreans destroyed.

FROM THE FALL OF THE T'ANGS TO THE RISE OF THE MINGS.

Towards the close of the reign of the Tangs, the Tartars began to make inroads into the southern empire. After varying fortunes they succeeded in wresting from the reigning dynasty all China north of the Yangtse. In something less than two hundred years they were in their turn driven by the allied Kin Tartars, the progenitors of the reigning family. The

960—1278 A.D.

Sungs who bore sway over

southern China were content to be vassals of these Tartar conquerors. They steadily maintained peace and, whenever threatened by the neighbouring tribes bought them off. Such inglorious peace made them altogether forget the art of war, and they as well the

* This sketch which had originally been carried down to the year 1900 has since been brought up-to-date.

vigorous Kin Tartars fell an easy prey when Jengiz and his Tartar hordes invaded China. Kublai Khan was the most famous of this new Mongol dynasty, and his magnificent court has been described by the Venetian traveller Marco Polo who visited him about the last quarter of the 13th century. He had trouble with the Japanese who made piratical raids on the coasts of China and Korea and failing to settle matters by a peaceful mission, sent fleets against them which proved equally unsuccessful. In this monarch's reign Catholic missionaries carried the good news of salvation through Jesus to the benighted Mongols. The Nestorian monks had gone as early as 635 to convert the Chinese to Christianity. In spite of official discountenance and persecution they seem to have had some success. In the palmy days of the Tang dynasty, in the reign of Taotsong, the Pope ever anxious to spread the influence of the Church sent an embassy to the court of China where the Papal envoy found accredited representatives from Persia and Nepal. In the reign of Mangu Khan (father of Kublai Khan), John de Plano Carpini and Friar Rubiquis see the Khan and are favourably received by him. They find Nestorian Christianity in a bad way and their own teachings rather perfunctorily listened to, because of Mangu and his courtiers being maudlin half the time from drink. When Marco Polo visited Kublai Khan, he presented letters and credentials from the Pope, and sure enough there were missionaries who came with him to spread the light of the gospel among the heathen Chinese. Kublai Khan being succeeded by weak successors, the Chinese break themselves loose from the Mongol yoke under the lead of Hangwa.

THE MINGS.

During Hangwa's reign the Hanlin College—the Chinese Haileybury—undergoes thorough repair and a similar college is established at Nanking, the southern capital. Another memorable event of the reign is the codification of the Chinese laws which conferred an immense benefit on the people. The Mings, as the members of the dynasty founded by Hangwa are known, continue to bear sway over China till they are succeeded by the Manchus—the present reigning family. In the reign of Chengte (1506-22) of the Ming dynasty, the Portuguese arrived off the southern coast of China and D'Ardade, commander of a small squadron, was well received by the authorities at Canton, and proceeding to Peking remained there as amateur ambassador for some years. The Portuguese at

Ningpo and elsewhere conducted themselves in an outrageous manner, and D'Ardade was arrested and imprisoned and, after undergoing six years of imprisonment, was summarily beheaded. The rather disagreeable experience the Chinese had of the dealings with the Portuguese made them refuse permission to having such missionaries as Xavier and Michel Roger admitted into China. But Ricci who arrived at Macao in 1582 had greater success. His wide sympathies, great learning and Christian charity won him respect and consideration from all classes of the Chinese and he was favourably received by the Emperor at Peking. Under his skilful guidance Christianity made considerable progress and we hear of conversions of the *litteratus* Hsü and of his grand-daughter. About this time, i. e., in the last decade of the 16th century, we hear once again of a conflict between Japan and China in connection with the suzerainty over Korea. The question of the Japanese supremacy had fallen into the background, and the influence of the Chinese had become paramount ever since the Mings assisted the Yi dynasty to establish itself on the Korean throne. Hideyoshi, a Japanese General, taking advantage of the internal feuds of Korea, advanced across the peninsula and made himself master of Seoul (1592). The Koreans appealed to the Chinese for help. The Chinese accordingly landed a large force which was defeated by the Japanese General. But a decided Chinese victory near Pingyang and the sudden death of Hideyoshi as he was preparing a fresh expedition restored peace between the two countries.

Wanli's long and prosperous reign may be called the flicker of the Mings before their final extinction by the Manchus. These latter had settled in the north of China and had generally acknowledged the supremacy of the emperor. Under Nurhachu and Tientsung the contest between the Manchus and the Chinese went on with varying fortunes and it ended in favour of the Manchus.

THE MANCHUS.

The first Manchu Emperor who ruled over a united China was Shunchih. In his reign two European embassies arrived at Peking—the Dutch and the Russian. Their reception was not encouraging: They were asked to *kowtow* to the Emperor on entering his presence. The Dutchman yielded and was permitted to come to the country once in eight years with not more than a hundred in a company, twenty of whom might attend the Emperor's court. The contumacious Russians—because they would not *kowtow*—were not granted these

doubtful privileges. In the next reign of K'anghsi, the extension of the eastern frontier of Russia and the erection of fortifications and entrenchments at Albazin on the upper course of the Amur made the emperor realise the danger he might incur if he should allow these pushing neighbours of his go on unmolested, and he sent accordingly a Chinese army which demolished the fortifications and marched to Peking as prisoners, the Russian occupants of the forts. In 1689, by the treaty of Nerchinsk, it was arranged that Russia should keep to the northern side of the river and should not disturb the peace of its southern shores. The liberal tolerance of K'anghsi procured for the Christians many privileges, but unseemly disputes between the Jesuits and the Dominicans that prevailed then were calculated to rouse the scorn of the heathen. After the death of K'anghsi the Christians began to lose favour at court. The arrival of foreign embassies gained for them nothing but trouble and disaster. There were in 1727 two embassies, one from Russia and another from Portugal, headed respectively by Count Sava Vladislavitch and Dom Mitello Souza Monzes, each eager to get rid of ceremonial forms which he thought were derogatory to his character as ambassador from his sovereign. The Jesuits incurred the displeasure of the Chinese as they were suspected to have been at the bottom of the mischief. On receiving a deputation of the Jesuits the Emperor said: "You tell me that your law is not a false one. I believe you; if I thought that it was false what would prevent me from destroying your churches and from driving you out of the country? But what would you say if I were to send a troop of bonzes and lamas into your country in order to preach their doctrines? How would you receive them? . . . The converts you have made already recognise nobody but you, and in a time of trouble they would listen to no other voice but yours." The missionaries thus attempting to establish an *imperium in imperio* were not liked either by the government or the people. Some trouble in the empire, absence of vigorous central authority must suffice to let loose popular fury against ill-appreciated, unwelcome disturbers of traditional

1735—1796 A.D.

beliefs and faiths. The regents that Kien' lung had called to help him in the government were not favorably disposed towards the missionaries and under their instigation severe persecutions began in Fukkien against the Christians.

It was in this reign that the first English

plenipotentiary was admitted to an audience of the Chinese Emperor. Lord Macartney had been instructed not to yield on the point of the *kowtow* unless a Chinese official of equal rank with himself would *kowtow* before the portrait of the English king. As no Chinese official could be found to submit to this, the *kowtow* etiquette was not insisted upon in the case of the English ambassador. No commercial privileges resulted from Lord Macartney's negotiations. Taking advantage of the ambassador's ignorance of the Chinese language, the Mandarins had inscribed, on the boat that carried Lord Macartney and his presents to the Emperor, the legend that it bore tribute from England to the Emperor. The contemptuous attitude of the Chinese is due to the fact that the 'Outer Barbarians' have always appeared as suppliants for favours and they as dispensers of privileges for which they have not asked anything in return. In the next reign the missionaries and the foreigners generally met with no friendly treatment. A less able man than his father Kien'lung, Kia'king was more punctilious about external marks of respect to himself. As Count Goloyken in charge of a Russian embassy could not bring himself to *kowtow* to the emperor he returned the way he came. Lord Amherst, the English Ambassador, returned from China without seeing the Emperor under very similar circumstances.

MODERN CHINA.

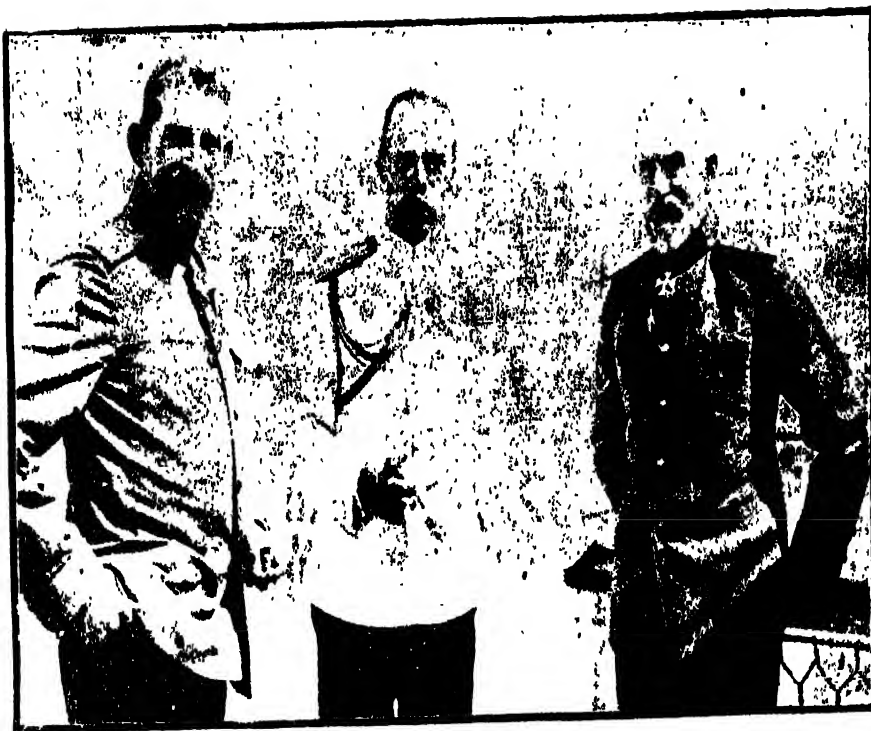
When the Charter of the East India Company expired in 1834, Lord Napier, was appointed to represent British interests in China. But sticklers for Chinese official form would not recognise his position and would not even allow his arriving at Canton without a formal permission received through the Hong merchants. The restraints on English trade only increased in severity, and the appointment of Lord Napier, far from promoting trade interests, acted in just the contrary direction. His death and the appointment of Captain Elliott to his place did not improve matters. To add to the perplexities of the situation, angry discussion began about the English traders forcing opium on the Chinese and demoralising them. The lofty pretensions of the Chinese Commissioner Lin who was specially appointed to settle the business were not likely to bring matters to a peaceful issue. He claimed the right to punish Europeans for crimes committed on Chinese soil and was highly incensed against the English when certain Englishmen guilty of rioting were not handed over to him.

The inevitable was not long in coming. A naval engagement was fought at Chuanpi on the 3rd November 1839, many Chinese junks being sunk and destroyed. The Celestials, though rather slow to be convinced, came to see that the gods were on the side of big warships and disciplined soldiery, and the rapid fall of Amoy, Tinghai, Chenhai and Ningpo made the Emperor send Commissioners for peace. By the terms of the treaty Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, Shanghai were thrown open to trade, Hongkong was ceded to the British Crown as also 21 million dollars as compensation to the victors for their loss.

The prostration which followed on the conclusion of the war encouraged the turbulent and disaffected portion of the Chinese society. Secret societies like the *Triad* and the *White Lily* began their treasonous agitation against the reigning dynasty but they were promptly put down. The Cantonese continued to give trouble to the English, but energetic steps taken by Sir John Davis brought the Chinese to their senses. Mr. Alcock was equally successful at Shanghai. The second English war was due to the boarding by a party of Mandarins and their escort of the British-owned lorcha "Arrow." The crew were carried off by the Chinese and the English flag was hauled down. A demand for the return of the crew not being complied with in a proper manner, reprisal followed, and the Chinese Governor making a proclamation calling upon the Chinese to have the barbarians exterminated, the English declared war. A naval action near Fatsan in which a number of Chinese junks were taken or burnt, and the assault and capture of Canton virtually put an end to the war. But the Taku forts had to be taken and advance made to the neighbourhood of the capital before a satisfactory understanding was arrived at with the Court at Peking. The treaty of Tientsin which concluded the war threw open the ports of Newchwang, Tengchow, Formosa, Swatow, and Kiungchow, legalised opium traffic and recognised the Europeans as civilised beings. The terms had been unwillingly agreed to and when the English took steps to have a formal ratification of the treaty by the emperor, the unfriendly disposition of the Chinese was shown by the sudden fire opened upon the English ships that accompanied the Ambassador to the mouth of the Peiho. France was in the same predicament as England, ratification having been refused to a treaty with that power, and the two governments accordingly agreed to make a joint invasion of the "Middle Kingdom."

The Taku forts were attacked and taken, and an advance was made as far as Tungchow. Here a party of Englishmen including Parker and Loch were taken prisoners. The allies then attacked the Chinese in great strength at Changchiawan and defeated them and then advanced upon the capital. The Emperor had quitted Peking and gone to Jehol on hearing of the near approach of the barbarian army. The taking of Yuan-ming-Yuan, the favourite palace of the Emperor, the setting on fire of the summer palace, the surrender of the northern gate of the city followed. Prince Kung saw the futility of further opposition, and by his efforts the demands of the two powers were granted. The Emperor that reigned all these troublesome years was known as Hsienfeng. The fourth son of the previous Emperor, he was chosen though his next brother Prince Kung was better known to the public as the President of the Tsungli Yamen (The Board of Foreign Affairs). On his death in 1861 he was succeeded by the Crown Prince who assumed the name of Tunchih. Prince Kung succeeded in getting rid of the Jehol faction that was anti-foreign in spirit, and in appointing as regents the two Dowager-Empresses, the mother of the Emperor and the principal widow of the late Emperor.

We must now refer to the Taiping rebellion which shook the power of the Empire, and but for the timely help of the despised barbarians, might have effected a revolution and change of dynasties. As early as the beginning of 1850, i.e., the year when Hsienfeng ascended the throne, the secret societies mentioned earlier had roused the seditious spirits of China, and owing to the industrious propaganda of the agents of the societies outbreaks occurred in which the government troops were not always successful. The appearance of a leader in the person of Hung gave a new impetus to the movement. He had come under the influence of a Christian pastor and created for himself a new faith calculated to favour revolutionary doctrines. He succeeded in spreading this new faith of his in Kwantung and Kwangsi and had a great following. He captured Nanking in the beginning of 1853 and proclaimed it capital of the new Taiping (Peace) dynasty which he believed he was ordained to establish. The new movement spread from province to province till Anhui, Honan, Shantung and southern Chihli were overrun by the Taiping troops. Now Li-Hung-Chang drew public notice to himself by the patriotic attempts he made to check the rebellious movements. His efforts were appreciated



THE CZAR, THE LATE KING OF ROUMANIA AND THE NEW KING.



SOLDIERS OF THE CRESCENT WHO ARE UNDER GERMAN
INFLUENCE : TURKISH INFANTRY ON THE MARCH.

SOLDIERS OF THE CRESCENT.



GENERAL L. VON SANDARS.
German Generalissimo of Turkey.



ENVER BEY.
The Firebrand of Turkey.



**THE LAST OF THE CHINESE EMPERORS.
KWANG-SU, 16 YEARS OLD, WITH HIS FATHER.**

by the Chinese generalissimo, Tseng Kwofan, who enlisted Li and his men under his immediate command. Li showed himself worthy of the high opinion entertained of him by Tseng and was advanced from one high office to another. The complications of the Chinese Government with the English and the French made it impossible for the former to devote all their energies to crush the rebels. The rebels grew troublesome, especially as they were under the able guidance of Hung's faithful Lieutenant, Chung Wang. The war with the English had shown to Li the superiority of the foreign military systems to those of China, and he therefore sought the help of the foreigners to put down this menace to orderly government in China. The American Ward with his force styled the 'Ever Victorious Army' and after Ward's death and his successor's defection, Major Gordon, were invited to lead the Chinese and the rebels were easily put down after some stiff fights at Kunshan and Soochow. The Nien-fei and the Muhammadan rebellions were ground swells that agitated China after the storm of the Taiping rebellion had spent its rage. They were put down rather from disunion among the leaders than by the energetic action of the Chinese Government. They were more or less local in character and did not materially interfere with the usual routine of the central Government at Peking.

The only events of importance we have still to mention in Tungchih's reign are the Tientsin massacre, the Audience question and the Formosan difficulty. The first was due to an outburst of ignorant fury against the supposed atrocities of the missionaries. The Chinese have much the same opinion of the Christians that the Romans had of them as practisers of the Galilean superstition. The Chinamen believe that Europeans use the eyes and hearts of diseased infants for medicinal purposes and the many deaths that occurred now led the townsmen of Tientsin to give credence to the folly.*

* That there was some foundation for the crude belief, the following quotation from the official despatch of the United States minister will prove: "At many of the principal places in China open to foreign residence, the Sisters of Charity have established institutions each of which appears to combine in itself a foundling hospital and orphan asylum. Finding that the Chinese were averse to placing children in their charge, the managers of these institutions offered a certain sum per head for all the children placed under their control given to them, it being understood that a child once in their asylum, no parent, relative or guardian, could claim or exercise any control over it. It has for some time been asserted by

The ladies of the orphanage were attacked and killed as also the French Consul. The Chinese officials were lukewarm in punishing those guilty of the outrage. Li Hung Chang was sent to the place and he made proper enquiries and had the culprits punished, though the populace were inclined to make heroes of them. France was 'sopited' by the payment of 400,000 taels as a compensation for the murder of the sisters and a special embassy to express regret for the murderous outbreak. A little earlier there was a similar outbreak against Protestant missionaries at Yangchow, and by the energetic action of Mr. Medhurst sufficient reparation was made.

The Audience question was another cause of difference between the Chinese and the foreigners. The Chinese theory is that the emperor is, as he is styled, the Son of Heaven; and he can have therefore no equals. All other emperors and kings can be only his tributaries. And representatives from these must show proper respect to this liege lord of the sovereigns of the earth. This theory, flattering as it may be to Chinese vanity, is not liked by other powers, and the history of foreign diplomacy is but a history of the attempts made by the several representatives to secure for their respective sovereigns recognition of an equal rank with the Chinese Emperor. The treaty of Tientsin had for one of its articles the treatment of the European ambassadors as representatives of sovereigns equal in rank with the Emperor. The absence of the Emperor's Court at Jehol and the long minority of Tungchih did not bring the question of audience before the Emperor as a matter of practical politics. Now that Tungchih had his court at Peking and had taken to himself an Empress (a public announcement of his having ceased to be under tutelage), the question of granting an interview to the embassies from the

the Chinese, and believed by most of the non-Catholic foreigners residing here, that the system of paying bounties induced the kidnapping of children for these institutions for the sake of the reward. It is also asserted that the priests or sisters or both have been in the habit of holding out inducements to have children brought to them in the last stages of illness for the purpose of being baptised *in articulo mortis*. In this way many children have been taken to these establishments in the last stages of disease, baptised there, and soon after taken away dead. All these acts, together with the secrecy and seclusion which appear to be a part and parcel of the regulations which govern institutions of this character everywhere, have created suspicions in the minds of the Chinese and these suspicions have engendered an intense hatred against the sisters," [pp. 694-5 Vol. III of Boulger's History of China, 1884].

different courts of Europe could not be put off. But the ingenuity of the Chinese politicians tried to whittle the significance of the ceremony by receiving the ambassadors in "the Pavilion of Purple Light," a hall not befitting the dignity of ambassadors from powers claiming equality with the Emperor, as it is the place where now year receptions are granted to the outer tribes and where wrestling and military exercises are performed for the amusement of the Emperor. The reception ceremony emphasised the condescension of the Emperor in according them admission to his presence. "In accordance with the pre-arranged programme, the ministers advanced bowing, and an address in Chinese having been read, Prince Kung fell on his knees and went through the form of receiving the message vouchsafed by the Emperor." Altogether the Chinese succeeded in persuading the European ministers in taking their Emperor at their own valuation.

The Formosan difficulty rose out of the Japanese sailors being cruelly put to death by the inhabitants of Formosa when they were shipwrecked on the island. The Chinese would neither punish the islanders nor give compensation to the Japanese. The landing of a Japanese force and the despatch of a special envoy made the Chinese reconsider their position, and through the good offices of Sir Thomas Wade, the Japanese agreed to withdraw on the payment of 500,000 taels. On the death of Tungchih on the 12th January 1875 by small-pox began the eventful

REIGN OF EMPEROR KWANGHSU.

An infant son of the younger uncle of the late Emperor, he was chosen by the Dowager-Empresses, widows of Hsienfeng, in preference to the grown-up son of Prince Kung, as the succession of the latter would have given them no chance of reigning as Regents. The new Emperor was adopted as the son not of the late Emperor but of Hsienfeng, and the Dowager-Empresses thus retained the position of mothers to the young occupant of the throne and had an agreeable prospect of a long regency. The ordinary course would have been to adopt an heir to the last Emperor and his widow would have to act as regent. Tungchih must have had adoption made to him and his widow should have had the regency. But the old ladies Tsi An the mother of Tungchih and Tsi Tshi, having tasted the sweets of power did not like giving place to the widow of Tungchih. So the before-mentioned departure from the ordinary course of adoption and arrangement of the regency.

The first difficulty of the new reign was the murder of Mr. Margary who formed a member of a commercial mission sent by the Viceroy of India to Yunnan. Mr. Margary arrived in advance of the party at Manwyne, a town within the Chinese frontier, and he was hospitably received by the officials. On the next day, while he was visiting a mineral spring in the neighbourhood, he was brutally assaulted and slain. Sir Thomas Wade addressed the Tsungli Yamen on the subject and insisted that a joint commission of English and Chinese officials should be made to investigate the matter with a view to find the culprits. The Tsungli Yamen were in an obstructive mood. The anti-foreign spirit had rather increased than otherwise since the treaty last concluded after the attack on Peking. After endless delays proper officials were appointed and investigations were carried on, and an understanding was come to between the aggrieved English and the Chinese and the Chefoo convention was concluded. Additional ports to trade were opened; regulations with the *likin* tax were placed on a proper footing; and a Chinese ambassador specially appointed for the purpose proceeded with a letter of apology from the Emperor to the Queen.

The next difficulty was in connection with Tongking. The French evinced after the war of 1870 an enthusiasm for colonial expansion, and Saigon which the French had captured in 1858 served as a basis from which they attempted to bring the neighbouring province under their influence. One or two filibustering expeditions were sent and Hanoi the capital was taken. The king of the province represented to his feudal lord at Peking these attempts of the French. Li Hung Chang suggested some peaceful adjustment of the claims of the aggressive French, and after some further attacks on and occupation of some towns by the French, a convention was drawn up by which France agreed to respect and, in case of need, to protect the southern frontier of China, and China undertook to withdraw her troops from Tongking. The convention did not put an end to the war as there was some misunderstanding as to the precise date when the Chinese troops were to be withdrawn. The war lingered on for some time longer with no distinct success on either party. At last peace was concluded between the powers on the 9th June 1885, pretty much in the way suggested by Li Hung Chang a year earlier.

Korea in the far north was the next scene of difficulty. The question of suzerainty over Korea was a matter of dispute between Japan and China. Japan

according to certain authorities and China according to certain other authorities had the earlier claims on Korea's fealty. We need not stop to decide the question. Ever since the help given by the sovereigns of the Ming dynasty to establish the Yi line in Korea, there was a recognition of the supreme position of China. The Emperor of China used to give the King of Korea his patent of royalty, and an annual mission used to proceed to Peking from Seoul bearing specified tribute and receiving in return the calendar prepared under the imperial auspices. Notable events occurring in the court of Peking were communicated to the Korean king who would send respectful messages of condolence or congratulation to the liege lord. The Japanese, who had asserted and made good-like claims on Korea found that latterly the vassal power was getting refractory, and when the change of government in Japan was announced by a Japanese embassy to the Korean court in 1868 and invitation made for renewal of ancient friendship and vassalage, an insolent repudiation was made of such pretensions to suzerainty. When a Japanese man-of-war was fired upon by the Koreans in 1875, an appeal was made to China as the superior power. China in a shortsighted hurry to escape such responsibility disclaimed any control over Korea, and the first Japanese treaty with Korea was concluded in 1876. The preamble to the treaty recognised Korea as a sovereign power and China was willing to wink at the matter. In 1882 because of the anti-Japan intrigues of the Korean King's father an attack was made on the Japanese legation at Seoul, and it was with difficulty that the Japanese escaped to the coast. The successful intriguer was now supreme and the king was made a prisoner. On Li Hung Chang's hearing of the outrage he sent a fleet of iron clads under Ma and suppressed the riots and the Japanese Government re-established their legation. So long as the mischievous father of the Korean king was at liberty peace was impossible, and he was accordingly removed from Korea and brought to Peking. Japan now concluded a convention which gave her the right to station troops for the protection of the Japanese in that country. Two years hence another convention had to be concluded because of a repetition of the troubles of 1882. The Korean mischief-maker had contrived to quit Peking, and the Japanese legation had to be reinstated by an avenging force. The convention required that both China and Japan should withdraw their troops within four months of the signature of the treaty, and that neither of the

powers should send troops to Korea without informing the other power of the fact. This virtually conceded to the Japanese a position of equality with China in matters relating to Korea.

When such outbreaks were frequent in Korea the neighbouring power of Russia expressed impatience with a state of affairs and threatened a move southwards. It was to check such a move that the English temporarily occupied Port Hamilton. A peaceful state of affairs supervening, the English evacuated Port Hamilton on condition that no other power should get it and the Chinese Government got an assurance from the Russian minister that his country would not under any circumstances interfere with Korea.

In 1894 the followers of the Eastern doctrine rose against the Roman Catholics, and the force sent by the Korean king was not able to put down the outbreak. An appeal was made by the king to Peking, and the Chinese in disregard of the treaty of 1884 sent troops to Korea without informing Japan. The Mikado's Government sent an army to Korea as a protest against this action of China. In spite of all that the Japanese did to conciliate the Chinese, they would not concede to the rival power any claim to interfere with the internal affairs of Korea and would not accede to the proposals of reform made by Japan. Any further importation of troops into Korea, said the Japanese, would be construed as an act of war. The Chinese did not mind the threat, and there were warships sent with Chinese troops and the Japanese declared war. The Chinese, though they had provoked the war, were not well prepared to meet the enemy on anything like equal terms. The battle of Asan, the siege of Pyongyang, the naval engagement at the Yalu river and the assault on Port Arthur showed the decisive superiority of the Japanese both on sea and land. The Chinese came to see the wisdom of arranging terms of peace with the conqueror after some further defeats. Li Hung Chang went on the humiliating mission of peace and agreed on behalf of China to grant to Japan the Liaotung peninsula, Formosa and the Pescadores and a war indemnity of 200,000,000 taels. An appeal made to the European powers made Russia, Germany and France intervene against the cession of Liaotung, and Japan had to forego the best fruits of her victory. A *quid pro quo* was demanded by the European powers for their timely intervention. Russia demanded the right of carrying the Siberian railway through Manchuria with a branch line to Moukden and Port Arthur. France was for the Chinese meeting the Tonking railway at

the frontier and continuing it as far as Nanning Fu in Kwangsi. Germany contented herself with some mining and financial privileges.

Ever since the outbreak of the Taiping rebellion, it came to be recognised that the Celestials had much to learn from the Barbarians with regard to the manufacture of warlike weapons and the training of soldiers. Li Hung Chang, as far-seeing a statesman as China has ever had, was for opening arsenals and strengthening the navy and otherwise preparing China to meet her rivals on equal terms. He was further induced to persist in such a course of reform because of the huge strides the neighbouring kingdom had taken in this direction. Attempts were made to open up railways and establish a company of merchant marines under Government auspices. Of a piece with these reforms was the opening of a modern college at Peking so early as 1866 when European professors were appointed to teach mathematics and kindred sciences to the Chinese youths. This reform being in advance of the age was not a great success. In 1887 a practical step was taken at the request of the Tsungli Yamen of including mathematics as one of the subjects to be brought up at the competitive examinations. These changes were distasteful to a large body of conservative Chinamen, and as these reform movements were associated in the popular mind with the mischievous meddlesomeness of the missionaries, there were published and circulated from Hunan, the most conservative of provinces, a series of placards accusing European missionaries of every species of crime. The old accusation of kidnapping children for using their eyes and entrails for medicinal purposes was revived. Riots broke out in several places, churches were demolished, the houses of the missionaries wrecked and looted. Two British subjects, one a missionary and another an officer of the Maritime Customs, were slain. The British Minister's representations to the Tsungli Yamen proved unavailing, and the mover of all the mischief was pronounced by the authorities to be a wild irresponsible creature whose actions could not be taken seriously. But the edict of the Emperor exhorting his subjects to better behaviour and the war with Japan put an end to this anti-missionary crusade for some time. But with the conclusion of the war, riots began in Szechuan and Fukkien and missionaries were attacked and slain. The murder of a German missionary in Shantung served as a convenient pretext for Germany to seize Kiaochow harbour and its surroundings. The example was followed by other powers. Russia seized Port Arthur and Talienwan, the British Wei-hai-wei and the

French Kwangchow. These coveters of their neighbours' vineyards thus too plainly showed their hand.

THE BOXER MOVEMENT.

The Chinese attitude to the missionaries has always been one of ill-suppressed hostility. There could be no love to men who disparaged the ethical teachings of Confucius and the religious teachings of Bodhisattvas—teachings so long venerated and cherished by the Chinese. The Chinese remembered that the missionaries preaching the gospel of love had been forced on them at the sword's point. The more far-seeing of their statesmen recognised the insidious encroachment of an *imperium in imperio*, "of a Secret Society hostile to the Commonwealth and of damage and detriment to the State." The addition to Christian converts was not making for peace. The missionaries showed themselves only too disposed to interfere whenever there was litigation or other disputes between the heathen and the convert. The Chinaman, accustomed to different views of woman's positions and responsibilities, could not but think evil of sisterhoods planted alongside of male establishments and of unmarried persons of both sexes working together both in public and in private and of girls going far into the interior without proper escort. He saw the missionaries avenged and trade pushed on and political advantages wrested on behalf of the different nations to which the suffering missionaries belong, and the Chinaman is not able to judge of the political and commercial and evangelical efforts apart from one another. The last move of Germany is specially notable in this connection. It was the occupation of Kiaochow by that power that made the other powers follow suit. The game of grab was barefacedly begun. No wonder that immediately after this aggression the patriotic league of *I Ho Chuan* began their work of active propaganda. The ostensible objects of the society were the performance of Sandow-like exercises and the preservation of peace in the neighbourhood of its headquarters. This society received the countenance of the Empress-Dowager (Tsi Tshi), and the members escaped the penalty of belonging to secret societies in China. Under such patronage the society spread till from the metropolitan province to Szechuan and Hupei the Boxer Society branches were found everywhere and they became a power. The movement was supported by men of exalted position and many Manchu officials seemed to have joined the Boxer society. It served as a protest against the reform agitation growing in

strength since the Japanese war. The young Emperor whose sympathies were with the reformers was deposed in September 1898 by the Dowager-Empress. The chief members of the reactionary party besides the Dowager-Empress were Prince Ching, Prince Tuan (the Heir-Apparent's father), Kangyi, Chaoshu Chiao and Li-ping-Hung.

The Boxer movement was in essence anti-foreign and anti-missionary. Massacres of Christian converts and burning of Christian villages came to a head in the murder of two English missionaries, Robinson and Norman (2nd June 1900) forty miles away from Peking. The legations were attacked by the Chinese soldiers. The slaying of the Japanese ambassador (11th June), and of the German Baron Von Ketteler (20th June) meant that the Chinese were in for a serious trial of strength with the foreign devils. On the 20th they opened fire on the legations.

The railway communication between Tientsin and Peking had been cut off on the 14th. Admiral Sir E. Seymour proceeded with a mixed force of Europeans and Japanese from Tientsin to restore communication. He was stoutly resisted and he made good his retreat only after a heavy loss. Some time was lost in waiting for reinforcements. International jealousies on the part of Germany and Russia with regard to Japanese co-operation also contributed to the delay. But in two months, on the 14th of August, the siege of Peking was raised, the British contingent led by General Gaselee being the first to enter the place.

The defence of the legations had been conducted with the utmost valour and heroism on the part of the besieged. The Chinese in their anxiety to burn out the British legation did not scruple to burn the adjoining Hanlin Buildings, storehouse of literary treasures and State archives. The Empress and Tung-fu-hsiang, the Chinese Commander, were the brain and the arm of the siege. The destruction of property of the foreigners was appalling. The whole business quarter was in ashes. The retribution that followed after the siege was equally terrible. Looting was universal and went on for some days. It took months to restore order and confidence among the inhabitants.

The Empress did not care to face the avengers and removed with her court to Si-gan-fu in Shensi 600 miles away from Peking. The ultra-reactionary spirit dominated the court, but Prince Ching and Li Hung Chung who had shown themselves not unfriendly to the foreigner were empowered to carry on negotiations with a view to settle terms of peace.

There were mutual jealousies and conflicting claims hard to reconcile among the victors. The Russian was unwilling to relinquish his hold on Manchuria, the railway line from Shan-hai-kwan to Peking, the river frontage at Tientsin. The German demanded adequate compensation for the *lesé majesté* against the Kaiser. The English and the Japanese and the Americans were somewhat friendlier towards the Chinese. After protracted negotiations the following terms were submitted on by the allies on the 20th and the 21st December and agreed to in substance by the Chinese on the 14th January 1901:

- (1) Honourable reparation for the murder of Von Ketteler and Mr. Sugiyama, (2) equitable indemnity guaranteed by financial measures approved by the Powers to states, societies and individuals who had suffered at the hands of the Chinese, (3) stoppage of importation or manufacture of arms or *materiel* into China, (4) maintenance of permanent legation guards, fortification of the diplomatic quarter and the securing of the sea communication by foreign military occupation of strategic points of the capital and the coast, (5) fixing of responsibility on governors and provincial officials for anti-foreign outbreaks and (6) the reform of Tsungli-Yamen and the modification of the ceremonial for the reception of foreign ministers.

A formal embodiment of the terms in the form of treaties among the powers concerned was delayed by a Russian attempt to secure certain advantages exclusively to herself in the way of strengthening her hold on certain parts of China where she marched with her, and also by the German Emperor insisting on Prince Chun, ambassador from the Son of Heaven, performing *kowtow* to him. Both the Tsar and the Kaiser saw the wisdom of gracefully receding from a position they could not maintain and the peace protocol was signed at Peking on the 7th September.

On the 7th October the Chinese Court returned to Peking and a month later on the 7th November died Li-Hung-Chung, who had enjoyed the largest measure of the Empress Dowager's confidence.

The trouble in Manchuria caused by the Russian and culminating in Russo-Japanese war, the awakening of China caused by a frank acceptance of Western culture, the re-organisation of national resources, reform of Government ending in a Republican form of Government are matters that will take us to the present-day China.

We referred to the intrigue of Russia to

come to a separate understanding with China with a view to secure advantages in Chinese territories bordering on Siberia. Finding however the great Powers would not stand any trifling on the matter Russia discreetly withdrew from her position. But she began again. In April 1903, she would not proceed with the evacuation of Manchuria that was due without further concessions than had been agreed for between herself and China by the treaty of 8th April 1902. In Korea again Russian activities threatened the hard wrested predominance of Japanese interests. For Japan to look on and sit still meant annihilation. She represented at St. Petersburg that Russian words and Russian deeds did not square together and offered terms that would confine Russia to Manchuria leaving Japan free to develop Korea. Russia thought she might brush aside Japan's dictation. She would not recede and she would retain all advantages on the Manchurian side and also on the Yalu side of Korea. The Island power feeling sure that Russia meant keeping a tenacious hold of Korea wanted to fight the big giant. The Russo-Japanese war was declared 1901.

on February 5, 1904.

Though it seemed the height of temerity for Japan to engage in war with such a power, she had carefully calculated her resources and the resources of her enemy on the scene of the war and felt no diffidence about the result. The heroic achievements of Japan in the campaign need not detain us. It is the final result that we are interested in. The success of Japan showed in an unmistakable manner that the Eastern nations need not be to the end of time Issachar-like bearing burdens if only they should assimilate the new knowledge of the West. Japan got recognised her right to preponderating influence in Korea and received from Russia the Liao-Tung peninsula, including Port Arthur and Dalny. Russia also agreed to evacuate Manchuria according to the terms of the 1902 treaty.

The lesson of the earlier war with Japan had not been enough for the slow witted Chinaman. The success of Japan with Russia coming after the suppression of the Boxer movement awoke China to the need for assimilating Western knowledge and adopting Western methods of national organisation.

The attitude of blind suspicion towards the missionary was given up and great eagerness shown to assimilate the knowledge he made available for the Chinaman. The boycott of American goods showed that the Chinaman was not going to be

the meek, long-suffering creature he had been hitherto and expressed his resentment against the Chinese exclusion from the States in the only way the dollar-loving America could understand. Educational reform, reform of the army and the navy and administrative reform were all taken up. Prince Chun who declined the *kowtow* to the Kaiser in 1901, Yuan Shih-Kai, the viceroy of Chih-li, Chang Chih-tung, the viceroy of Hu-Kwang and Prince Ching, President of the Grand Council—all helped on the reforms in different directions.

In 1902, after the return of the Court to Peking, regulations remodelling the methods of

Education Reform. public instruction were passed. The Peking University was to impart instruction in Western learning. There were to be besides a technical college a special department for the training of officials and teachers. In 1906 the old system of examinations was abolished. The funds of thousands of temples were utilised for educational purposes. By May 1906, 15 universities had started work. Many young Chinese went abroad for instruction and girls' schools were started.

Among notable changes indicating the new spirit must be mentioned the control of the maritime customs which the Chinese took into their hands

in 1906 and the anti-opium crusade. The

Other Changes. first step showed the impatience of the Chinaman with foreign domination, and the second was a serious attempt at moral betterment and increased social efficiency.

The death of the Empress-Dowager on the 15th November 1908 and of the Emperor a day before carried from the scene of history two personages associated with the old world China, the China of foreign exploitation, the China unable to adjust itself to new conditions.

The son of Prince Chun, and nephew of the late Emperor Kwang-Su, succeeded with the official name of Hsuan-Tung. Born on the 8th February 1906, the Emperor must have been on the 2nd December 1908 when he was crowned Emperor a child barely 3 years old. He had just completed his sixth year (February 12, 1912) when he had to abdicate the throne. On the 1st of January 1912 the Chinese Republic was born with Dr. Sun Yat-Sen as its first President.

So early as 1905 along with other reforms the work of administrative reform was taken up. An Imperial Commission was appointed to study the administrative systems of foreign countries with a view to establish a representative govern-

ment in China. Further commissions were appointed to make special studies of the constitutions of Great Britain, Germany and Japan. As a result of all these labours a parliamentary constitution was to come off a few years hence, the reforms of central administrative offices were to be taken up first. An Imperial Assembly was to be started to develop later on into a Parliament of two chambers familiar to students of Western politics.

Elected assemblies in the provinces were instituted in 1909 (14th October.) The Senate or National Assembly met on the 3rd of October next year. The Parliament was to be summoned three years earlier than originally intended.

Meanwhile the reigning dynasty had come to be regarded as inimical to the progress of the country. It was supposed to be in league with

foreigners to partition the country. The financial measures of two big loans for currency and railway made it still more unpopular. Floods and famine added to the general distress and unrest. Revolutionary doctrines were industriously spread. Yuan Shi-Ki, who was recalled to command the Imperial forces by Prince Chun who had exiled him, did what he could to stem the revolutionary tide. He wanted to secure at least a constitutional form of monarchy. The revolutionary leaders won. The abdication of the Regent and the Emperor followed. Dr. Sun Yat-Sen was the leader of the Anti-Dynastic propaganda. From Japan he had carried on his campaign and became the leader of the Young China party. When the revolution began in 1911 he was in England but he hastened to the country. The Nanking Council composed of delegates from 14 provinces elected him President of the Chinese Republic.

THE INFLUENCE OF WAR ON ART

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IN order to dispose of any misconception that it is possible may have arisen in connexion with the subject of my remarks, it seems necessary that I should first clear the air by plainly defining the title of my lecture.* In the first place by "War", I do not mean the present great conflict, but war in general; in the second place, by "Art", I intend largely to confine myself to the so-called Fine Arts of Painting and Sculpture. This explanation seems required because the war which is now raging over almost all the world is so much in the foreground of life's picture that it may be thought I intend to deal solely with the influence of the present crisis on the daily art of our time. This aspect will naturally form a portion of my remarks, but it is in the broad manner I have indicated that I propose to approach my subject this evening.

The direct effects of war on art are obvious. So much so that they are apt to perplex the judgment and bias the opinion with regard to the equally important, but less focussed, indirect

effects. At no time have the direct effects of war been brought so prominently into our vision than at present, especially with regard to architecture. From the earliest times these immediate influences have been recorded, in the destruction of cities containing unique collections of art, and buildings which have displayed the grandest architectural qualities. And the present war has most graphically supplied another expressive illustration of the devastating effects of war on art. Never has destruction been so complete, and there appears to be every reason to suppose that it has been carefully calculated destruction. Science has usurped the place of Art in many ways, but it remained to science in war to do the greatest damage to art, that is the depriving of future generations of the art which existed before science was known. It was an art which sprang from the religion the devotion and the sense of service in the world; that sense of service which not only impelled men to work for religious ends, but aroused that pride of citizenship which raised the great municipal buildings of the middle ages and made men so proud of their crafts and trades that they built such magnificent buildings as the

* A lecture delivered at Calcutta.

Oloth Hall at Ypres, and hundreds of other places where the Guilds had their centres. In the words of an artist who has seen these and written to me with the sense in his mind of the havoc done recently: "These places the Germans seem to have taken a special delight in destroying. It is as though they wished to remove all evidences of a previous civilization and on the ground thus cleared to erect their own dull, stupid, uninteresting buildings in the style their scientific minds seem to delight in."

It is however the less obvious, but more far-reaching, results of the "indirect influences" to which I propose to call your attention, and, as an introduction to this, a brief investigation of the effects of great wars on art, as chronicled in history, may be undertaken.

One of the earliest civilizations, that of Egypt, was characterised by a profoundly artistic nature, and at the same time its history is a record of constant warfare. The purpose of Egyptian art was always to give a faithful representation of fact. This was either actual fact or ideal fact. In interpreting the former much of the mural sculpture portrays the victories of great kings over innumerable enemies, while a favourite subject is an illustration of bands of prisoners accompanied by huge captures of loot. During the period of the 18th dynasty, about 1500 B.C., Egypt, under Tothmes III, became essentially a military state, and at this time many of the noblest of her monuments were executed. The artistic importance of the school of sculpture which flourished at this time has only recently been recognised, but it plainly indicates the main source of inspiration of a subsequent and greater art, that of the Greeks. At this time the virility and intense energy of the Egyptians in all their glory found an outlet in war, and simultaneously in raising great buildings lavishly decorated with bas-reliefs of their victories.

The Assyrians were warriors and hunters, and scenes commemorating their prowess in both these spheres predominate in the remains of Babylon and Nineveh. One of the earliest records found in the Mesopotamian valley illustrates a most realistic picture of war. It is the famous "Stele of the Vultures", now in the Louvre, but originally a monument of victory. The details of this battle seem to have made a vivid impression on the artist's mind, and all the horrors of war are faithfully depicted. In one scene the king stands in his chariot with a curved weapon in his right hand, while his kilted and helmeted

followers, lance in hand march behind. In another a flock of vultures is feeding on the bodies of the fallen enemy; in a third a tumulus is being heaped up over the slain. Elsewhere we see the victorious prince beating down a vanquished enemy, and superintending the execution of other prisoners who are being sacrificed to the gods. Scenes of this nature occur frequently in the early sculptures of Babylonia and indicate that in those days war and art progressed hand in hand. The Assyrians were a hardy, vigorous people, fighting for dominion, and this is repeatedly shewn in their pictorial bas-reliefs.

Ancient India provides us, in its greatest epics, with excellent illustrations of war and art, as the main theme of the Mahabharata is based on the destructive conflict waged between the Kurus and Panchalas, and ending in the overthrow of the Kuru dynasty. The incidents of this classic, and especially its descriptions of heroic fighting, have formed popular subjects with Indian artists for thousands of years. From the Ramayana, too, Indian painters and sculptors have taken their pictures of war, notably the splendidly dramatic attack by the monkey army on the stronghold of Ravana at Lanka in Ceylon; while sanguinary battles and the sack of cities were frequently represented by the Indian miniaturists of Moghul times.

But when we turn to the history of ancient Greece we find the most interesting illustration of the influence of war on a country's Art. It is true that certain schools of modern thought have endeavoured to depreciate the artistic productions of the classic age, but, in spite of this, Greek art is still generally regarded as the highest form of æsthetic culture the world has ever seen. In it idealism and ethical purpose predominate, and in all good examples we find the fundamental beauty of tone and line and mass and colour which is always present in every true work of art. Greek statuary demonstrates that the Greek people managed to invent and live by a practical ideal. That ideal was a good Athenian citizen, only more so. It was a citizen rather richer, rather braver, rather bigger, rather nobler, rather stronger, rather more eloquent, intelligent, and comely than any citizen they had ever happened to meet. Further this ideal citizen, in fact every Greek, was necessarily a soldier. The result was that the martial spirit permeates the whole atmosphere of the country. It is the foundation of their literature, their art, and all their public institutions.

Some explanation of this is to be found in the early history of the nation. From the first, Greece found herself fighting for her very existence against the great power of Persia in the 6th Century B.C. In this momentous conflict it must be realized that not only the ascendancy of Greece, but in its broad aspect the whole future of European civilization was at stake. As time went on, the Greeks began to perceive more and more clearly that the great conflict in which they were involved was one not merely for national but for spiritual issues. The story of the great battles which brought about the national unity of Greece is reflected in the art which followed these epoch-making events. These bitter years of devastation, of struggle that must often have seemed futile and hopeless, leading up to the final repulse of the Persians at Salamis and Plataea, brought the Greeks to a proud consciousness of a glorious national destiny, and to an unflinching faith in, and pursuit of, those enlightened ideals for which they had fought. Their ultimate victory was a splendid moment in the history of a richly dowered race; the great events of the Persian wars were vivid and recent in their remembrance, and it was the persistence of such memories which formed the foundation of much of the art of Greece. But it did not take the form of a portrayal of its scenes of conflict and victory. Instead it became idealised into a representation of a spiritual struggle of the Hellenic race for those ideals of light and liberty and reason and order which had been at stake. In their art the Persian wars were forgotten, but the spiritual conflict which they typified remained as a recurring theme whose significance was for all time. Indeed it may be said that this spiritualised conception of conflict, in which the upward-reaching Hellenic spirit is represented as contending with the powers of darkness and licence and social anarchy, is the central motive of Greek sculpture; and it was the vivid national sense of this conflict that enabled the Greeks to achieve that noble pinnacle of beauty which their art attained. The gods and heroes whom they fashioned in bronze and marble stood for the ideals and aspects of ordered reason. Their satyrs and other wild beings were types of the licence and disorder of nature. And in their friezes and pediments, decorated with battles of the Greeks with Amazons, Lapiths with Centaurs and gods with giants, we read the same story of perpetual conflict with anti-social, unruly and destructive forces.

From Greece the national historical sequence

is Rome. Rome occupies a singular position in the annals of Literature and Art. She is, as it were, the link between the ancient and the modern world. In the pride of her prime the rays of intellectual life converged on her as on a focus; in her downfall, she was the centre, from which they were scattered over the whole of the ancient world.

It is impossible to dissociate any of the Roman genius from her military successes. Her intellectual productions, including her art, such as they are presented to us, demonstrate undeniably the influence of her strenuous fighting history. Certain direct effects which are always produced in a greater or lesser degree on the art of a victorious people, by the extent of territory consequent on a long series of triumphs, are very evident in the records of Rome. Her wide dominions were necessarily favourable to intellectual advancement, for from these she was able to accumulate artistic treasures, to enlist the talent of other countries, and to supply incentives, materials, and models for the development of art. We read that painters were in requisition to furnish the necessary ornaments of the Roman triumph. The Athenians sent Metrodorus to Paulus Emilius for that purpose. Pictorial models of numerous cities were displayed in the procession which celebrated the victory of Scipio over Antiochus. It is recorded that Messala first exhibited a picture of his victory over the Carthaginians; Scipio and others followed his example. Mancinus was said to have owed his consulship to the enthusiasm excited among the people by a painting which represented his successful assault on Carthage. The designs on Roman coins were suggested by conquest, such as the figures emblematic of subjugated provinces, and the delineations of triumphal arches and public edifices. Rome in art became truly "the epitome of the world;" her galleries and shrines were adorned with the choicest spoils of Corinth, of Sicily, and of Athens; in fact it has been said at the time that her population of statues rivalled in number her population of citizens. It was the singular privilege of Rome to command at once by force of arms the stores of Asia and the skill of Greece.

It may be pointed out however that these brilliant results of conquest are balanced by some evils. Rome appertained more to a Museum than a School of Art, and that this fact and her vast extent of territory comprehending a variety of different types tended to produce an æstheti-

cism of a somewhat composite nature. While the wars of Greece established harmony between the character of different Greek tribes with the result of harmony in the orders of their architecture, the Roman conquests led to extensive but heterogeneous dominions and a style made up of diverse and sometimes discordant elements. Ruskin's evidence is that while the Romans were in every sense adepts at war and great fighters, they were wholly deficient in the true æsthetic instinct; and in their hands the classic arts were extinguished. To summarise, the devotion of Rome to war during the first five centuries of her history diverted her from the refined occupation of art. At the end of that period, war, in the form of conquest, began to exercise a contrary influence, and a people, who had previously been characterized by a contempt for everything æsthetic, became willing at once to admire, to imitate, and to preserve. This however was largely the extent to which their aspirations led them, for the art of Rome is not usually classed with the great schools of history.

Time does not permit of an investigation of the Crusades in their influence on art, regarding which there is much conflicting evidence. There is however little doubt that the art of western Europe, including England, received an impetus from these religious wars, for they brought people into contact with records of an older and more complete civilization than that with which they were previously acquainted. In Byzantium, where a number of them spent some time, they would see examples of art richer, especially in colour-richness, than anything they had ever dreamt of. Commerce might ultimately have brought about the same results but it would have been by slower methods. Then there is that period of warfare in the 16th century, in which, throughout the whole of English life, in every phase and every grade of it there is that exaltation, that spiritual exultancy, which finds its supreme expression in Elizabethan literature, in the great dramatists of that time, in Marlowe and Shakespeare and Ford, in Webster, in Beaumont and Fletcher, in that outburst of thought and of art which has no parallel in world-history. The 16th century marks a chain of art which stretched across the world from England to China; the Italian school of Painting, Moghul Painting in India, Persian Painting under Shah Abbas, the wonderful Ming Dynasty in China, and the Elizabethan period in England.

From this preliminary survey, we may turn back

to the Greek period again, to a momentous historic episode, closely related to our subject, which it is desired to emphasize because of its intimate bearing on the country of India and its art. I refer to Alexander the Great's expedition into Asia in the 4th Century B.C. It is now not unusual to hear this marvellous achievement somewhat disparagingly alluded to as a raid, and its direct effects on India as being of no great significance. Also that the Hellenisation of the East would have progressed on practically similar lines had Alexander's expedition never taken place. This view however has not been generally accepted, and in any case the march of Alexander may be regarded as immediately leading to the consummation of Occidental influence in the Orient during these early years of history.

The story of Alexander's campaign in the East is outside the limits of my subject, but in its bearing on Indian Art a few essential facts may be brought forward. In the first instance it seems clear that the early artistic efforts of the Greeks were inspired by their contact with the comparatively advanced civilization of the Persians. Travelled Greeks found themselves confronted with the achievements and memorials of a highly developed Oriental culture, with traditions which must have appealed to their receptive nature. But Greek Art and Literature, though proceeding from Eastern origins, soon manifested a spirit of self reliance and took up an independent and indigenous character. By the time of the 5th century B.C. the reflex action was in force, and Greek culture was making itself felt in the Near East. In art it was its strength and beauty, its worship of the "Wholeness of Life," which made it so supreme and led to its being carried into all parts of the then known world. But the great driving power which caused it to make an indelible mark on many of the institutions of the East was Alexander's invasion of Persia into India between the years 334 and 326 B.C.

This expedition was a far more complete undertaking than expeditions are realized in later days. Apart from the military contingent which comprised the nucleus of the force, there was a large attendant, somewhat cosmopolitan community of a civil nature, who carried their trades and occupations with them. This, as we know, was a feature of most expeditions which had invasion as their object in ancient days, but it is understood that in this case the entire operation was organized in a remarkably elaborate and thorough manner. That Alexander's pre-conceived plan

was something far superior to a raid may be gathered from an incident quoted from Professor Cramb. On the night before Alexander of Macedon started for the East on that career of conquest in which, like Achilles, his great exemplar, he was to find his glory and an early death, he had a farewell interview with the man who had been his tutor, now the master of a rising school of thought in the shades of the Lyceum. And towards the close of the interview Aristotle said to the Macedonian:—

"You are about to start upon an enterprise which will bring you into many lands and amongst many nations, some already celebrated in arts and arms, some savage and unknown. But this last counsel I give you. Whithersoever your victories lead you, never forget that you are a Greek and everywhere draw hard and fast the line that separates the Greek from the Barbarian."

"No," answered the youthful conqueror—he was barely two and twenty. "I will pursue another policy, I will make all men Hellenes. That shall be the purpose of my victories."

The wisdom of a soldier for once went deeper than the wisdom of the greatest architect of thought that time has known. And undoubtedly the famous Macedonian's plan, either for better or for worse, was most rigorously put into effect, and carried out to the letter. Colonies of Greeks were planted in various localities with one of the results that the influence of Hellenic art has been traced even as far east as Japan. In Northern India the imprint of the Greek is most strikingly manifested in those mounds of shattered sculptures in the neighbourhood of Peshawar, which mark the site of the ancient country of Gandhara. A comprehensive collection of these carvings may be seen in the archaeological section of the Indian Museum, a careful study of which is strongly advised. In it we may observe, most plainly portrayed, the influence of a warlike invasion on art. But that is, except in connexion with my subject, a comparatively unimportant feature of these remains. The chief point they illustrate is the overlapping of the civilisations of the East and West which took place some two thousand years ago. And the principal concrete evidence of this historic episode is revealed in these records of contemporary art. Here we may see the Greek Corinthian capital combined with the Indian figure of Buddha, soldiers with classic arms and armour but Indian draperies. Greek features but the figures clothed with Indian costumes, and many other composite conceptions depicting an

intermingling of Eastern and Western symbols and ideas. But the influence of the Greeks was not only confined to the north, although in that portion of the country it is most plainly discernible. South, as far as Madras, it is traceable in the bas-reliefs of Amaravati but in a much less pronounced form and in various intermediate centres, such as Muttra in the United Provinces, the dynamic touch of the classic hand has left its distinctive mark. How much of this may be traced to the soft flowing current of peaceful intercourse, or to the stormy stream of Alexander's warlike enterprise, it is difficult to decide, but that the latter had no small share in spreading classic influence in Indian Art seems more than probable. We may now, having briefly reviewed some of the various historic examples of our subject, endeavour to formulate a general deduction.

In the first place it is ordinarily understood that a time of peace is the great stimulant to the production of art; that when countries are engaged in their peaceful occupations of trade or manufacture, then architecture, sculpture and painting flourish: that tranquillity and harmony of life encourage artistic activity, and, under these quiet and orderly conditions the artist prepares his masterpieces undisturbed by strife and violence—in other words that peace is the parent of art. On the other hand several authorities have demonstrated that the entire opposite is the case, and that far from being the fruits of peace, the great arts of the world have been founded on war. In the words of Ruskin "there is no great art possible to a nation but that which is based on battle," in the times of peace the arts decline and among wholly tranquil nations wither utterly away.

Now I am inclined to think that the records of history mainly point out that both peace and war are, other things being equal, required to produce a great art. These other things are: art instinct, without which of course art is impossible, and most important of all the character of the war in which the country is engaged. It is quite possible that one of the reasons why Roman art never attained greatness was that the Roman wars were mainly wars of conquest. Inversely, some of the grand quality of the Grecian art may be due to the fact that the wars of Greece were largely struggles for national ideals. A great fight for right principles inspired the people with a sense of exultation and a feeling of moral strength that found expression in a noble art,

The balance of historical evidence seems to indicate that the period of peace immediately succeeding a war waged solely for the sake of fundamental ideas, is the most favourable time for the development of the arts.

It remains now for us to apply this deduction to the present state of affairs and to see if possible what may be the course of art in the near future. To carry out this undoubtedly difficult proposition it will be necessary to realize the condition of art previous to this great crisis and to note the trend of art thought during the last few years.

The historian of the future will, I think, determine that the 19th century was not a great one for art. But he will probably refer to the fact that the first years of the 20th century marked a period of æsthetic unrest. This unrest is known to most of us by numerous examples of painting and sculpture of an unusual character which have been recently exhibited and reproduced in most of the countries of Europe and also elsewhere. It may be asked what were the events which led up to what has almost culminated in a state of artistic anarchy? The answer is one which extends far outside the realm of art and is to be found in the condition of mankind itself. It may be likened to an earth tremor, more convulsive in some places than in others, but a general seismic wave which disturbed the balance of mind in several parts of world. But unlike an earthquake it gave some warning of its action. In art it showed itself in overmuch frivolity and license. Particularly was this noticeable in much of the modern German art, which revealed a coarseness and wantonness which is significant in the light of very recent events. Here it may be remarked that of modern German artists only three, Böcklin, Lenbach and Menzel, have risen to any attempt at greatness. The pompous and inflated compositions of Carstens and Mengs, of Schnorr, Cornelius and Kaulbach, have passed into an oblivion from which it is unlikely that they will ever emerge. Their work was a mere exercise in the grand style from which life, character and humanity, whereby art retains its hold on men, have alike vanished. To realise the art of Germany's rising generation we have only to refer to modern students' journals, which largely illustrate freaks of design, or fantastic models posturing in front of toy cypresses and plaster temples.

It is not difficult to believe that the enervating influences of peace were indirectly responsible for

the state of art generally during the last few years. For from peace nations passed to prosperity, from prosperity to luxury, and from luxury to an insatiable desire for something new and exciting in life. (Here the significant fact may be observed that the men fighting in the trenches, in spite of hardships, with a few exceptions, remain remarkably healthy and vigorous because their life is the reverse of luxurious and appertains to the strenuous primitive existence of the pre-historic cave-dwellers). In the art-world this restlessness and craving for novelty took a revolutionary form, or, as some would have it, created æsthetic hysteria.

And so came into being the Passeists, and Futurists, the Divisionists and Pointillists, the Intimists (who belong to the same group) and the Fauvists (or savages), the Orfeists and Cubists, the Expressionists, Vorticists and Dynamists. The manifesto of the Futurists issued in February 1909 will give some idea of their character and programme :

'The essential elements of our art shall be courage, daring, and rebellion.

'There is no beauty except in strife.

'We shall glorify war, patriotism, the destructive arm of the Anarchist, the contempt for effeminacy.

'We shall paint the great crowds in the excitement of labor, pleasure, or rebellion ; of the multi-colored and polyphoric surf of revolutions in modern capital cities ; of the nocturnal vibration of arsenals and workshops beneath their violent electric moons ; of the greedy stations swallowing smoking snakes ; of factories suspended from the clouds by their strings of smoke ; of bridges leaping like gymnasts over the diabolical cutlery of sun-bathed rivers ; of adventurous liners scenting the horizon ; of broad-chested locomotives prancing on the rails, like huge steel horses bridled with long tubes ; and of the gliding flight of aeroplanes, the sound of whose screw is like the flapping of flags, and the applause of an enthusiastic crowd.

'Erect on the topmast pinnae of the world, once again we sling our defiance to the stars'

This manifesto, read in cold blood, sounds like pure revolutionary rant ; but a deeper study of this programme reveals considerable bed-rock of reason. In other words it means a violent reaction against the shackles of tradition and the worship of precedent. Freedom is their battle-cry, and their war is against weakness and senti-

mentality, invalidism, comfort, softness, luxury and effeminate excess.

With this the thinking man will no doubt sympathise, but when it comes to an understanding of their manifesto, materialised into art, the ordinary individual stands aghast. It is in the interpretation of their object that they fail to convince, and the question then arises as to whether it is possible to translate intelligibly their revolutionary ideas into concrete art. An abstract of Marinetti's recitation of one of his poems on battles may convey some sense of what this Futurist calls "wireless imagination". "The event described took place outside Adrianople in 1912 and depicts a train of Turkish wounded, stopped and captured on its way by Bulgarian troops and guns. The noise, the confusion, the surprise of death, the terror and courage, the grandeur and appalling littleness, the doom and chance, the shouting, curses, blood, stink, and agony all were combined into one great emotion by that amazing succession of words, performed or enacted by the poet with such passion of abandonment that no one could escape the spell of listening. Mingled anguish and hope as the train started: rude jolts and shocks and yet hope; the passing landscape, thought of reaching Stamboul. Suddenly, the air full of shriek and boom of bullets and shells; hammering of machine-guns, shouting of captains, crash of approaching cannon. And all the time one felt the deadly microbes crawling in the suppurating wounds, devouring the flesh, undermining the thin walls of the vitals. One felt the infinitely little, the pestilence that walks in darkness, at work in the midst of gigantic turmoil making history. That is the very essence of war. That is war's central emotion."

In effect, something of that kind was to be the fundamental idea of this higher æstheticism, but before people had quite decided how to receive it, the shadow of the great war blotted out all these apparent side issues, and the world was brought sharply back to first principles. And so, for the time being, art is at a standstill, except for the comparatively narrow avenue of journalistic illus-

trations. Further, it is likely to remain stationary until the world settles down to peace again. But in the meantime, sub-consciously, the art of the future is being forged and annealed by the powerful flame of war. War has destroyed much, as we have seen, but it has created far more than it ever destroyed. It has destroyed the shallowness of national life which is reflected in a superficial art, and in its place it is building up a new sense of national thought and tendency. And the awakening of this deeper nature should lead to a deeper contemplation of artistic ideals. A people's art has, and must have, some relation to and some movement with the strong stream of national life. The artist's use of his eyes and ears and mind reflects, and must reflect, the habit and race of his time.

So through this great conflict we may reasonably hope for great artistic issues. Belgium, ever an artistic country, will, when peace is eventually secured, no doubt rise to the occasion and display her artistic spirit, just as she has so brilliantly shewn her fighting spirit. Out of the very catastrophe with which Belgium has been overwhelmed, from the experiences of war, defeat, and spoliation, ultimate victory will surely rise, Phoenix-like, an artistic revival. The impious and wanton destruction, to which she has been subjected, may be the means of tuning and concentrating her artistic talent, and, in the restoration of her national monuments, she will have a unique opportunity for the exercise of her genius. France has, in a lesser degree, undergone a similar harrowing experience, and, with her great and undoubted reputation for art great things may be expected. And the anticipated example of these two countries will no doubt stimulate others which are now being subjected to the bitter discipline of war. As a result of this discipline it seems more than probable that, in that vague "Afterwards," a great revival of art will take place, on a sounder and more exalted plane than has ever been possible since the 16th century.

Essays on Indian Art, Industry and Education


BY E. B. HAVELL

CONTENTS:—The Taj and Its Designers, The Revival of Indian Handicraft, Art and Education in India, Art and University Reform in India, Indian Administration and 'Swadeshi' and the Uses of Art. Price Re. 1-4. To subscribers of the *Indian Review*, Re. 1.

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GERMAN vs. ENGLISH EDUCATION

BY SIR PHILIP MAGNUS, M.P.

 In late years, we have heard a great deal of loud talk as to the excellence of German education. There was a time, some twenty or thirty years ago, when I admit our school organization was very defective. It was at a time when the late Matthew Arnold was continually telling us to organize our secondary education. But that has now been partly accomplished, and it is well to remember that there can be too much, as well as too little, organization. What is more important than organization is the character and spirit of the teaching given in our schools; and, viewed as a whole, I believe our own system and our own methods are distinctly better than the German. In Parliament and elsewhere, I have frequently heard men occupying high positions endeavour to enforce their arguments in favour of some new measure or proposal by saying, "It is done in Germany." Well, I must own that argument has had little weight with me, and it has less appealed to me, because I have known that if these distinguished authorities, instead of selecting for our imitation some particular feature of German practice, had explained to us more fully German methods, the picture would have proved less attractive. But this by the way. No doubt you have been impressed, as we all have been, by the intelligence, the foresight, and attention in detail shown by the Germans in their preparation for the War in which we are now engaged. But the lessons to be learnt from this War—lessons not to be despised nor to be regarded as the German Emperor is said to have spoken of Sir John French's "little army"—do not lead to the conclusion that their men and women are more competent or more highly cultured than our own, nor even that the instruction provided in their schools and colleges is more educational in the true meaning of that word than that provided in our own institutions. Judging from the Report of the Principal read to us this evening, I do not hesitate to say that there is no school similar to this in Germany doing equally good work. The much praised German efficiency is due to many causes, but it cannot be ascribed to the intellect-

ual, and certainly not to the moral, pre-eminence of their ordinary citizens. It is due largely to the concentration of their educational efforts on a specialized form of training—a training the advantages of which have been recognized at all times and in all countries except our own—I mean military training; and, strange to say, it is this training, which those who have been loudest in their praise of German education have consistently deprecated.

Everyone who has studied German social conditions has known that German life in all its varied aspects has been, and is now, dominated by one idea—the preparation for War. I am not one of those who speak disparagingly of the beneficial influence on character of military exercises. I recognize their value in developing bodily activity, in quickening the perceptions, in rendering the intellect more alert, and in creating useful habits. But that the soul of a nation should be wholly pre-occupied with warlike preparations, that all social, political, and economic efforts should be determined by military considerations, that the universities, the technical and other schools should be saturated with thoughts of war and conquest, and that the conceptions of the people should be so warped that they fail to distinguish between Might and Right, and learn to exalt necessity above moral law is, as the result of education, so opposed to our own ideals, and is so antagonistic to all civilizing influences, as to compel every effort to prevent its spread, and to sanctify the sacrifices which we and other nations are making to resist it.

The German Government, realizing that some justification was needed for this deification and worship of brute force, would seem to have invited, or required, the Professors of their State-supported Universities, themselves servants of the State, to proclaim the great superiority of their own culture over that of any other country, and the consequent urgent necessity that Germany should acquire, by force of arms, supreme political power, in order to fulfil what she claims as her heaven-imposed task and civilizing mission, that of spreading her own culture and her own civilization throughout the world. The arrogance of this claim only equalled by its absurdity and purposeful self-deception. Prussia has dominated

* A prize giving address delivered at the Municipal Technical School, Birmingham, recently.

the rest of Germany, and some of the finest features of German idealism have been destroyed by her powerful penetrating spirit. She has not yet succeeded in dominating Britain, and in literature as in science, in discovery and invention, she remains far behind us. And, if we eliminate what Germany owes to Slavonic and Semitic genius, we may truly say that, except perhaps in music, there is no form of culture in which the Teutons, as a race, are superior to the Anglo-Saxons. It was necessary, however, to fan the native conceit of the German people, in order to gain their support for the costly scheme of conquest on which they had determined to embark. Hence their Culture cry. But we all know now and many knew long since, that their real object was to strike at England, and by first destroying, and then re-arranging, the scattered elements of the British Empire, to subdue and to govern the habitable globe. Well, they have not done that yet; but the picture of the Kaiser and the Sultan marching arm-in-arm among the nations, distributing tracts on Culture and the higher civilizing influences of Prussian discipline, would indeed be comic, were it not for the pain and sorrow which have followed from the overbearing conceit that has brought about this devastating War. And now, let me briefly explain, how this swollen-headedness and ambition have affected the whole scheme of German education.

In their educational system, and indeed in the entire organization of their social life, compulsion is largely substituted for free volition. Slavish obedience is regarded as essential for the exercise of what is claimed as *Deutsche Tugend*, or German virtue, and it is so enforced that freedom of expression in thought or action is rigorously suppressed. From his earliest childhood, throughout his entire youth the ordinary citizen is trained in accordance with the requirements of a State policy, and is treated as a part of a great military machine. In a very interesting book, recently published, entitled "Memories of the Kaiser's Court," the author, who was English governess to the Princess Victoria Louise, now Duchess of Brunswick, says; "Education in Germany seems to be strictly standardized. At a certain age every child, be he prince or peasant will be in a certain class, learning certain subjects. Each year he will move a grade higher, or if he does not the whole family will feel that some dreadful, irretrievable disgrace has befallen it. The mother will weep

about the house, sighing and swallowing her tears. The father will wear a corrugated brow, and perceive, looming in the distance, a son who is a *Zweijähriger*, that is, one who must give two years instead of one to military service, since he has not passed the necessary examination which reduces the term by twelve months. This is one of the most terrible things that can happen to a German household."

There is not much suggestion of love of learning in the passage I have quoted. The parents' sorrow is not for their son's failure to appreciate German culture, but for the more disappointing fact that he will be forced to undergo two years' military service instead of one, and will be pointed at as a *Zweijähriger*.

In this family picture, in the description of German social life, which may be found in many works of fiction and in other publications, and in the events which have led up to this War, and also in its conduct, we see the grave defects and not the merits although there are some—of the German as compared with our own system of education. We see the lack of sympathy and of imagination and the consequent narrowness of view, the paralysis of individualism, the exaltation of mere intellect, and the absence of any high moral sense. We see a whole people organized into a vast and nearly perfect military machine, its human elements so controlled and tempered as to act with the accuracy and precision of the cogs and wheels of some highly finished mechanical appliance. As an example of discipline, and of the effect of enforced obedience, it is nearly perfect. But when, under changed conditions, as in a state of war, these leading strings are loosened and the accustomed fetters are removed, we find that the average man, so educated, relapses into a state of almost native barbarism, and acts under the savage impulses of his untrained and undeveloped character. Too many sad examples of the excesses to which he is liable the history of this War has disclosed. Such conduct, which has come as a painful surprise to most of us, is very largely due to the system of education, which coerces instead of training the will, and compels obedience, instead of encouraging a healthy sense of freedom and responsibility. To this system of education our own is a happy contrast, and I hope it will continue to remain so.

One lesson, however, of practical importance we may learn from the study of the great warlike instrument which has been largely fashioned in

the schools of Germany. We may learn the value of thoroughness in any work in which we may be engaged. It may be—I fear it is so—that in much that we have undertaken we have been content with something too far short of the perfection which should be our aim, and towards which, by more concentrated study, we might be able more nearly to approach. We may have become a bit slack owing to the individual liberty which we enjoy, and which we rightly prize. We may suffer from the drawbacks to our advantages. If so, let us be warned in time. In physics, we know what is meant by the dissipation of energy. In all our undertakings we should endeavour to avoid it. On the battlefield the enemy have scored successes, gained by their previous preparation for every conceivable emergency by their careful survey of the conditions of the problem they had set themselves to solve, and by the swiftness and strength of their attack at selected points. They have made mistakes. They have failed, from lack of imagination, to anticipate the action of their opponents. They may have miscalculated the effect of certain unknown, and possibly unknowable, forces. But we cannot fail to admire their thought and care in preparation and their thoroughness in actual work. Those qualities are worthy of imitation and are potent elements of success. In all our educational efforts we should avoid superficiality, applying all our energies to master each separate difficulty with which we are confronted. Such difficulties meet us in the classroom, and in the laboratory, and be sure that we gain more intellectually by the thorough mastery and complete solution of some one problem, by the determination of all relevant considerations in any single investigation, than by covering in a partial and *dilettante* manner a much larger area of work. It is an old educational axiom—to which, in many of our schools, too little attention is given—*non multa, sed multum*; it is a still older maxim, applicable to all our undertakings, “Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.”

Before sitting down, there is one educational question of wide significance, to which the attention of Parliament has recently been directed, on which I desire to say a few words. The question has special reference to the work of great technical institutions, such as this school. I refer to the importance of some preparatory and intermediate training for children between the ages when they leave the elementary school

and when they should commence their distinctly technological instruction. There are many more ways than one of bridging over this critical period in a child's life. We have adopted from the French and the Belgians, whose artisans have always been distinguished for their efficiency, a system of continuation trade schools, known as “Apprenticeship Schools.” We are establishing evening junior technical schools, which will serve as feeders for the higher technical institutions. But we cannot escape from the conclusion that the majority of children between the ages of thirteen and sixteen, or indeed fourteen and seventeen, who have spent the whole day in the factory or shop, or in other work, are too tired to profit fully by evening teaching. Time and money are, therefore, wasted in driving them into evening schools. What I am very anxious to prevent is the enactment of any measure compelling these children to attend such schools. Here, again, we should avoid imitating what we are told is the German practice. I appeal, therefore, most earnestly to manufacturers and employers of labour to afford facilities to their apprentices and young employees to join, if only for a few hours a week, day classes, in which they may receive practical instruction, and to make it as far as possible a condition of employment that they attend those classes. Further, I venture most respectfully to urge Local Education Authorities to arrange for the formation of day classes during those hours that may be found most convenient to employers. I am quite certain that much may be effected by co-operation and by the mutual efforts of employers and local authorities. Encouragement is far better than compulsion, and is better adapted to our ingrained British principles. There are duties which the State has a right to exact from its citizens, and in enforcing these the State may have been too lenient; but in educational matters, where compulsion can be avoided, let us leave to our young students above school-age as much individual liberty as possible.

Well, I have ventured in these few remarks to afford an example of that superficiality I have asked you to avoid. I have touched upon many subjects without fully discussing any one. I apologize. But I could not refrain from all reference to the distinctive differences between the overpraised German system of education and our own, and from pointing the moral which those differences suggest.

THE LATE MR. G. K. GOKHALE

Innumerable meetings have been held all over the country to render a nation's homage to the memory of the late Mr. Gokhale. The following are some of the more notable tributes from His Excellency the Viceroy, two Provincial Governors and other prominent admirers of the great patriot. Owing to pressure of space a few more tributes have been held over for another issue.

H. E. LORD HARDINGE *

It was with deep regret that on the morning of the 20th I received the sad news of the premature death during the previous night of the Hon. Mr. Gokhale, member of this Council. I had heard that he had been compelled by indisposition to delay his arrival in Delhi, his intention having been to come in time for the meeting of the Council to-day and it was a great shock to me, as it must have been to us all, to learn that he had quietly passed away. The Hon. Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale was born at Kolhapur in the year 1866. I need not go into the details of his earlier life beyond mentioning that Mr. Gokhale took his degree of Bachelor of Arts in 1884 in the University of Bombay, of which University he subsequently became a Fellow. Almost immediately afterwards he began to devote himself to the cause of education. For 20 years he served as a lecturer at the Fergusson College, Poona, specialising particularly in History and Economics, a subject into which he threw himself with so much fervour and zeal that he became an acknowledged authority, and at the same time giving much of his time to establishing the College on a sound financial basis. During this period of his life he began to take a prominent part in public life and was for four years secretary to the Provincial Congress Committee of Bombay. In 1897 he was one of the joint-secretaries of the Indian National Congress and continued for many years to labour in that capacity. In 1897 he went to England as one of the witnesses before the Royal Commission on Indian expenditure and gave evidence which was of very great importance and value. In 1900 he was elected a member of the Bombay Legislative Council and in 1902 he was elected representative of the Bombay Council on the Imperial Legislative Council. This office he continued to hold until the date of his death. In 1904 he was made a Companion of the most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire. In 1905 he was president of the Indian National Congress and in the same year founded the Ranade Economic Institute and the Society of the Servants of India. Later on he paid several visits to England and toiled ceaselessly for the various causes he had so much at heart, and I have always understood that he took a quiet but active part in the conversations that led up to the reform of this and the other Indian Councils. Finally, in 1912, he was appointed a member of the Royal Commission on public services in India.

Such are some of the very distinguished services of the Hon. Mr. Gokhale, but not all, for in Council, he was well-known as a speaker of conspicuous ability and wonderful eloquence, while his earnest enthusiasm and sound judgment secured for him a commanding position among the public men of this country. He was a loyal supporter of British Rule in India, but, nevertheless,

was also, on many occasions, a fearless critic of the administrative methods and policy of Government, and never hesitated to draw attention to any measure or action which in his opinion was improper or open to censure. In regard to financial and educational questions, in particular, his attacks were frequently most forcible and incisive, so much so indeed that the abilities of his opponents were frequently taxed to the utmost to meet his arguments. Though, however, a severe critic of those who opposed him he was always dignified and courteous in debate, and even when unsuccessful in securing his object impressed all who heard him not only with his skill but with his intense earnestness and desire to do what was in his opinion right. He took a prominent part in all debates of importance during his period of office in Council, especially in those relating to financial, educational and administrative questions. During my period of office the most important measure in which Mr. Gokhale was interested was the bill to make better provision for the extension of primary education. Though he failed in inducing the Council to accept the bill, all those who heard him will remember the extraordinary force and ability with which he pressed his views. It is also right that on this occasion, I should refer to the important part taken by Mr. Gokhale in emigration questions and in particular that with relation to Indian emigration into South Africa. In this question as in all other political questions, Mr. Gokhale strove ceaselessly for the amelioration of the condition of Indians and for the promotion of their welfare, and in my opinion it was largely due to him and his tactful and statesmanlike attitude during his visit to South Africa that this thorny question eventually received a satisfactory solution.

In my personal relations with Mr. Gokhale I have always regarded him not merely as an important member of my Council but also as a friend. On more than one occasion he has given me advice which I found to be both sound and useful, and I may mention that in the South African immigration question he rendered me most loyal and helpful assistance. It was only six months ago that I recommended to His Majesty the King-Emperor the appointment of Mr. Gokhale as Knight Commander of the Indian Empire as a mark of recognition of his valuable services, but Mr. Gokhale, with that simplicity of nature which characterised him, gratefully acknowledged the intention but asked to remain as he was. He has now left us and we shall feel the void he has created, for one may truly say that it will be almost impossible to fill his place in Indian public life.

THE HON. MR. G. K. GOKHALE: A sketch of his life and Career. With copious extracts from his speeches and writings. Price Rs. 4.

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* At the Imperial Legislative Council at Delhi on the 23rd February.

H. E. LORD WILLINGDON.*

It is a matter of deep satisfaction to me to have been able to preside to-day at this great demonstration and to join with you who knew him best and among whom he passed the greater part of his life in doing honour to the memory of Mr. Gokhale, and in paying a last tribute to a great man whose life-work was so intimately associated with this city.

We meet indeed to mourn a heavy loss, for he has been taken from us when he could ill be spared, while he was engaged on work on which his knowledge and influence were of the greatest importance at this present juncture, and this is clearly proved by the tributes which have been paid to his memory during the past few days not only by the Viceroy himself and people in all parts of India, but by his Majesty the King-Emperor, and leading statesmen in other parts of the Empire.

He has died when we might have hoped he would have been in the full vigour of manhood, but his physical strength was not equal to the constant strain of mental energy and devoted work which he freely gave for the good of the people. He spared himself no effort up to the day of his death, and truly of him it may be said that he lived and died for his country.

His was a character which shunned notoriety, he cared nothing for personal advancement or honour; in all his public life he simply strove to work for the good of India. He was a man of strong convictions, of pronounced views, and was often a persistent and fearless critic of Government policy, but as a loyal and honourable man he always worked to advance by constitutional means the various schemes which he advocated. And he gained the high position he held at his death in the minds and affections of all who knew him because he was a man to be trusted, because his word was his bond, because he was a man of principle and honour.

I am glad that I am able to say to-day that I have come under the influence of his personality and can claim to have been his personal friend during the past two years. The recollection of our many talks, of the simple modesty, and transparent sincerity with which he expressed his views and opinions will always remain in my memory, and it is a deep satisfaction to me to feel now that although we did not always agree, we had complete confidence and trust in each other. The hand of a Divine Providence has taken him to his rest. May I not hope that the example of his life may be followed by many in the future? That there will come forward many in this country, eager, without any wish for personal reward or advancement to work for the good of the land, earnestly desirous to give their best years to helping forward on sound and constitutional lines the progress and welfare of India? The task is a noble one, and surely no better memorial could be given to the memory of the Indian patriot and the Imperial statesman whose memory we are met here to honour.

* Speech at Poona.

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HIS HON. SIR JAMES MESTON.*

Gentlemen of Lucknow,—At last the sad rites are over; the ashes of that great patriot, to honour whose memory we are met to-day, have been consigned to the sacred river, and nothing now remains for those who knew him and revered him: throughout the length and breadth of India, but to meet as we meet this afternoon, and to express, as we shall do, our regret for this irreparable loss and our unfailing esteem for his memory. I have accepted with gratitude your request that I should take the chair at this evening's meeting; for it gives me an opportunity of adding my small tribute to the memory of a man whom I knew well and whom I respected greatly. It is now a good many years since I first made the acquaintance of Mr. Gokhale, and when I first knew him it was as a private friend. Our conversations used to turn on the men whom he had known, the common friends whom we had in political and academic circles in England and on the ideals and methods of his work in India, at a later stage I came to know him in a somewhat closer manner. When the enlarged Councils first came into existence, he was one of the most prominent members and I was also a member of the Viceroy's Council. When I say that he was one of the most prominent members, I mean that he stepped naturally and automatically into the position and what the present law member once described as "leader of his Majesty's Opposition." And I well remember the very strong objection which Mr. Gokhale, in the course of that debate, took to the expression, "His Majesty's Opposition." He said "My Lord, we stand not here as an Opposition, we come here as advisers to you, as councillors to you, as critics, and, it may be occasionally as checks: but we are never the Opposition for the sake of opposing the Government of the country."

Well, gentlemen, it was in that capacity that I saw most of Mr. Gokhale and it so happened that in the earlier days of these Councils he devoted himself and his unequalled gift of criticism mainly to the financial policy of the Government, and of that policy it was my lot to become one of the prominent defenders. The consequence was that we were constantly crossing swords upon all sorts of problems, on complicated questions of currency, exchange, famine insurance and laying up of the resources of the country for its future requirements. These, gentlemen, are matters in connexion with which I mostly had to do with Mr. Gokhale, and I conscientiously feel that never once through the course of these heated and sometimes excited debates was there a word of rancour or ill-feeling or misunderstanding between us. We would discuss the thing privately beforehand, and we would discuss it in Council, we would turn it over in our private conversations afterwards, but all through it there ran on his part nothing but a desire to get at the truth and to arrive at conclusions which would be good for the future of the country. So that when the time came for us to part, I felt that we had established a lasting mutual esteem. The esteem was certainly there on my part, and the feelings on his side will, I think, be judged from a brief anecdote which I perhaps may be allowed to give to you. As we were parting, when I was going home preliminary to coming to these provinces, he came to me one afternoon and said: "I am very anxious that you should do well in the U. P., but you are sure to make

At the Lucknow Meeting.

blunders and what I want to do is to come and stay with you for a few days about half way through your term of office and to tell you, as the friend that I always have been, of the mistakes you made." Gentlemen, I regard that as the very highest form of friendship, the very highest compliment he could pay me. And frequently during the last two years have I reminded him of his promise. But alas, he had other business, more important duties, and in the end feeble and failing health which prevented him from coming and fulfilling it. Gentlemen, as I have started on a personal note, I hope you will allow me to finish on it, and to give you my own impressions of Mr. Gokhale derived from several years of close intimacy with him in official matters.

The first thing that struck me always in Mr. Gokhale was his extraordinary capacity for work; his splendid natural gifts were fortified by incessant industry. However shaky his health might be, however great the demands might be to diverge into other things he never in handling a new subject lost sight for a moment of his duty to it, that high form of duty which cannot be satisfied until it attains a profound and detailed knowledge of the subject. There are some of you here I believe who worked with him in earlier days (I understand there are present to-day some members of the Servants of India Society) and they know more of this than I can profess to tell you. This much I know that any subject that came under his purview was immediately divided up into its component parts; sections of it were distributed to his chosen assistants; and he then sat down, guiding and encouraging them, and toiling himself until he knew all about the subject that was to be known. That is a rare gift among politicians and it was carried to a very high degree by Mr. Gokhale. The next thing which struck me very much in him was his curious fastidiousness. He was fastidious in his friends, he had the poorest opinion of many of those who worked round him and he had great impatience for the slackers or the incompetent, or the shabby make-belief. He was fastidious in his language, which made him India's greatest orator. He was fastidious in his political weapons; I never saw him do a mean or underhand thing. Then, gentlemen he had a high courage, both intellectual and physical, and he had, what is probably the highest form of courage, an unhesitating repudiation and a contempt which he never concealed, for meanness or injustice. Finally, gentlemen, as you all know, he had a burning love for his country, and a fervent belief in the upliftment of his people. There is much more that I could say about the great patriot who has now left us, but there are other speakers this afternoon some of whom probably have known him longer and possibly better than I did, and I will now make way for them. I would conclude with the prayer that his soul now rests in peace; and if it is permissible to give utterance to any wish which more than another would be pleasing to that soul in the unknown region whither it has departed, it would be the wish that some part of his high and pure and fiery spirit will descend upon and illumine and inspire those like him, who are working for the future of India's welfare.

IN MEMORIAM.

The Indian Review for February contains a study of Mr. Gokhale and his manifold services to the country. With a beautiful frontispiece. Price Rs. 8.

H. H. THE AGA KHAN.*

After the striking tributes that have been received from all quarters, from His Majesty the King-Emperor, from their Excellencies the Viceroy and our own Governor about the greatness and goodness of Mr. Gokhale and the deep and sincere sorrow that has been occasioned in this country at his premature death and the way in which his work and achievements have been regarded by the public and the press, it will be superfluous on my part to refer to them at any length. His work and achievements are well-known to all of you. I will, therefore, confine my remarks chiefly to his qualities as a man which constituted him a moral and spiritual force. I had the honour of being closely associated with Mr. Gokhale in his public life and of being one of his intimate personal friends during the last twelve eventful years of his great career. We have gathered together here to-day to raise a memorial to a great and true servant of India. This will no doubt be worthy of him and of India; but may I say that the best memorial of the life of a great man is his work. By this test, Gokhale's work for the country which he so passionately loved will be, when we consider the slender resources at his disposal, in fact, stupendous. That memorial is to a large extent the present constitution of the Government of India's Executive and Legislative Council, the Secretary of State's Council, and the Legislatures and Executives of the Provinces and the carefully thought out constitution of the National Congress and the Moslem League, as well as the present line of policy of the Government towards the people, and of the thinking leaders of all sections of the people towards the Government. This may appear an exaggeration, but none who carefully considers the history of the last twelve years can doubt it. Ten years ago, while the thinkers and the intellectuals and the patriots of the country unanimously desired a step forward towards the ultimate policy of self-government, while a few agitated for it and a handful of revolutionaries tried what is known in Europe as the 'action direct,' it was Mr. Gokhale with his breadth of vision who brought all the forces, except the last, together and disciplined them into a reasonable line of activity.

Gentlemen, Mr. Gokhale was the last man to claim any large credit for the reforms which we owe to the Morley-Minto combination, but let me say that it was he above all who convinced not only a generous and noble-minded Viceroy who is, like Gokhale alas! no more with us, but who was like him the very soul of honour and chivalry and also a far-seeing statesman who was responsible to Parliament for India's Government as to the necessity of the reforms which he sketched before them in a practical form - the reforms which were subsequently with little alterations carried out. As events have now shown beyond doubt it was a happy circumstance for England that the reforms were carried out in that form and at that time and Mr. Gokhale served the honour and interest of England by proving to Lords Minto and Morley that those reforms were necessary and practicable. For, gentlemen, ten years ago, there were phenomena with infinitely more dangerous possibilities than we can now realise. It seemed to even those who by tradition, sentiment, and interest were most attached to the British Raj that sooner or later they would have to choose between their loyalty to their Government or their duty to their country and race; or there was the

* At the Bombay Public Meeting.

distinct danger that a day might come when the two duties might become irreconcilable. If that was a nightmare to those who had a stake in the country, there were others with less responsibility who had hastily come to the conclusion that there was no possibility of development under the flag, and that terrible as were its consequences, yet chaos and destruction had to come before a new evolution could make a self-respecting position possible for their country.

We must remember that ten years ago it seemed not only as if an end had come to any hope of progress under British rule towards popular Government but even such aspirations and discussions seemed to be looked at askance as disloyalty by the powers that were. To those parties and schools of thought which practically monopolised the thinking and the patriotic in 1905-06, Gokhale showed that this very Government and this very Empire had all the elements which were full of possibilities and was capable of assuring for their country a great and self-respecting future in the fullness of time. And that disruption and destruction were not only wicked, but unnecessary, and that within the British Empire and under the Sovereign's Crown and Throne the noblest of India's aspirations could be in times satisfied. It was fortunate for the country and the Empire that in those days of unrest we did find a political leader of the capacity and character of Gokhale who by his wise attitude was able to take the wind out of the sails of the revolutionaries and at the same time both strengthened the Government and the sensible portions of the people. But Gokhale was more than a statesman. He was essentially a creative artist of genius. His oratory was a work of art in words: but he was not only an artist in words but an artist in work and conception and like a very great artist he did not disdain in the search for his material to go wherever he could find it. Like the true artist he gathered the scattered materials that were placed before him and with the creative touch he did find out of the hazy suggestions that a friend made to him a formula that has been recognised by the National Congress and has been in a still wider form accepted by the Moslem League as the final aspiration of India ever within the Empire. This work had one great side-effect. It eventually reduced the gulf that separated the political activities of the Moslem community and the National Congress to a mere division without a difference.

As time went on Gokhale realised so fully that the path of political progress in India had to be wide enough and broad enough for all minorities, not only Moslems but even the smallest, to be able to travel on it without losing individuality, that in the very last state paper which he ever wrote (he only finished three days before he died and sent two copies to two trusted friends—in this state paper which for the two friends is a sacred legacy and a political testament) he distinctly laid down that not only the Mussalmans but that even the smallest minorities such as the Lingayats in any part of India wherever they may be, should receive special representation. Now this great work of the creative genius that he was by harmonising the statesmanship of England with the aspirations of sensible India brought home to Indian workers that patriotism meant active co-operation with the Government. His last policy was association and co-operation with the Government whenever possible and as far as possible, and fearless but legal opposition when necessary. We must never forget that before we leave co-operation for opposition

we must try persuasion to its very limits and that the opposition must be constitutional. As we know now full well from the example of the highest British authorities, they too will not force the patriotic and sensible classes into opposition with a light heart. This was the crowning work of Mr. Gokhale than whom no one has exercised greater beneficent influence upon the minds of his countrymen and fought more courageously against pernicious doctrines which were being spread in the country and which would have done incalculable and permanent injury to India. Gokhale was profoundly loyal to the King-Emperor and the British connection and believed in it and throughout these months of war he was, though like all sensible people certain of ultimate British victory, yet he dreaded and shuddered at the very thought of the possibility of the Empire being weakened through exhaustion after the final victory.

Happy is the Government that sure of the love and loyalty of its most influential, intelligent and powerful subjects, can join in mourning the champion of the rights of the people. The history of England in India is a page of many glories but I think I am right in saying that its greatest victory is that it gained the loyalty and affection of a sincere and conscientious patriot like Gokhale. In the distant future when the history searches in the dead annals of the past for some human document to give life to his work he will conclude that the Empire of England in India must have been moral and just and in fact necessary to the conditions of India of the past for it to have won the affection of a man like Gokhale. May the British Empire for many a long age to come have heavenly grace to rule in a way that the Gokhales of the future may be equally loyal and feel that Sovereign and land require the same service. Your Excellency, ladies and gentlemen, the men who have done great work can be divided into two categories, some much greater. Gokhale belonged to the latter. Let me turn to other aspects of his life and character. He was no faddist. He did not limit himself to the choice of his weapons either to force or to non-resistance in the best sense of the word. He was an opportunist and a pragmatist as every great man who deals with living and changing beings must be. With all his moral grandeur, with his public and private sacrifice, he yet remained not a cold and distant being but a man of the world in the best sense of the term as understood in Europe. He was not only broad-minded but charitable. His instinctive sense of human solidarity made him full of personal sympathy not only to his opponents but to the selfish and the snobbish self-seekers. But his wrath and contempt was reserved for the poisonous and deadly vice of hypocrisy.

He realised full well that in a country with the traditions of India hypocrisy and the pride that apes humility are infinitely more dangerous than any open iniquity. There were many other sides to his character. Mr. Gandhi, an intimate friend of his rightly said the other day at Poona that he was not only a great citizen of India but a great citizen of the Empire and of the world. This is true. Yet unlike most internationalists, unlike most humanitarians, he did not feel the numbing effect which usually goes with generous benevolence and unselfishness. Breadth of vision, elasticity of unselfish character are so often as we know made useless by indifference and lack of energy. Fanatics and self-

seekers have usually at least this quality, they are full of activity in serving themselves or their creeds. But Gokhale brought the same energy, the same unconquerable determination into the service of the widest individuality that he knew—India. Let us raise for him not one memorial, in bronze or marble but many memorials not only in Bombay and Poona but also in Calcutta and Delhi. Let everyone in India subscribe to the great memorial, the Servants of India Society, which like Gokhale shall be above sects and creeds and doctrines but which shall correspond to his catholicity. Gentlemen, I have said so much, yet when I think of him I feel how little I have said. He was a great statesman, a great orator, a great patriot but for those who knew him best he was above all a great gentleman. During the last few weeks of his life I was often with him and one of the last occasions that I saw him hardly three weeks ago, I saw him sitting in a rose garden at Yerawda and with pathetic and feeble gestures telling me how he suffered at the idea of carrying a controversy with his own countrymen. I expostulated with him that after all now that he had to go in for it there was no need of so much worry and suffering. His answer was characteristic. He said 'I fear in the weak condition of my health I may say or write something which may expose them to an attack from other quarters.' This was the chivalry of the man. His career bounds with many such episodes. He possessed great spiritual force and he was able to infuse his own and unselfish energy into others. His deeply religious character has been misunderstood because it was entirely free from the calculating commercialism of other worldliness.

A well-known critic of Indian progress and aspiration, Sir Valentine Chirol, once said in a newspaper that he doubted if the Servants of India Society would be a success for long, since people did not sacrifice so much for a secular purpose like love of country, but I think the critic misses the essential point that the Servants of India were and are the servants of Gokhale and thus the Association does a religious service for a living spirit. Just as another more ancient and famous Society has taken its name and inspiration from another great spirit so will this Society, though it works for the country, yet get its inspiration from the spirit of its great founder. Your Excellency, ladies and gentlemen, one more point and I have finished. He has been gently criticised for not taking a more prominent part in the work of social reform. Here too he saw and took with the direct instinct of genius one sharp decided step which took him as far as any social reformer could go. How well I remember his refusing to take a part in the discussions of the Hindu-Moslem Conference at Allahabad. He refused because as he said he had ceased to be Hindu or Mussalman, but had become an Indian. Is that not the ultimate solution of social reform? Can one injurious social custom whether Hindu or Mussalman be reconciled to Indian patriotism? To be an Indian patriot and not to be a social reformer is a contradiction in terms. I wish every social reformer was as good a patriot as he was a social reformer. But your Excellency, ladies and gentlemen, I have not yet touched on his greatest of all powers over those who knew him best and loved him best, it was his power of winning love and affection. They often regretted as they sat by his side that there was no counting house in the universe where they could go and transfer a few years of their own healthy life to the account of Gopal Krishna Gokhale.

SIR PHEROZESHAH MEHTA.*

All thought of making a great speech about the great man and his great work have been driven out of my mind. I could have taken up hours recounting all that I know of Mr. Gokhale and his life and career. No speeches are required about him. This gathering and the gatherings all over the country are eloquent speeches, speaking of him as he deserves to be spoken of.

Even if I attempted to make a long speech, I feel that I could not have spoken connectedly and coherently, for the reason that I feel sad and desolate, advancing as I am myself in years, that valued and beloved colleague after colleagues drop away from my side. I recall Ranade, Telang, Badruddin and many others I could name leaving me as I feel almost alone in the work, the great work, for the country which is still pending before us. The memories and associations which come before one's mind's eye, would leave me scarcely any power to dilate on details. Within the last few days, as His Highness the Aga Khan has told you, both he (His Highness) and I had numerous opportunities of conference and communion with him here in Bombay before he left the last time for Poona. I myself went to spend my Christmas holidays at Poona for the purpose of meeting and speaking with him on many important subjects. We were together on several occasions when I was there and I cannot but recall with a keen sense of regret what plans he laid down for the present year, what hopes he had of making himself useful, and the work he had planned out for himself for the benefit of the country which he loved so dearly.

'For many and many a long day' said Sir Pherozeshah speaking with emotion, 'some of us will only be able to give out the sore, the bitter, the pathetic cry as we miss him day by day.'

'Oh for the touch of a vanished hand
For the sound of a voice that is still.'

Gentlemen, he has gone. How dearly we loved each other, what regard we had for each other I can never convey to you. In attempting to speak of him all that comes back to me is 'Gokhale has gone' and myself do not know what I shall do to carry out the plans we had planned out without his help, without his society, without his guidance. His Highness the Aga Khan was quite right in saying that everything that could be said about him was said by the noble Viceroy in his speech in Council, and by our own beloved Governor in the two speeches he has made, and in the loving and sympathetic tribute which his dear friend—as I know the Aga Khan was—has paid this evening. All I can do is to associate with you in paying this last tribute to the memory of a great and a good man. I should like to add what His Highness the Aga Khan has unerringly put his finger on, that Gokhale was a great gentleman. It was the great moral and spiritual power which he exercised over all classes which enabled him to carry out the great work which he has undoubtedly performed for the benefit of his country.

* At the Bombay Memorial Meeting.

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THE HON. MR. CLAUDE HILL *

That I have known Mr. Gokhale for many years and have, like the proposer and seconder, been intimately associated with him on many occasions, is my justification for joining my voice, to that of those who have spoken before me, in extolling his great and unselfish qualities and the splendid example which he has given of devoted service to his country. It is difficult on an occasion such as the present, which, though it expresses our pride in, as well as grief for the loss of, the citizen who is dead, is one of sorrow primarily, to speak in a vein of hopefulness, and yet I believe that were the Hon. Mr. Gokhale here present amongst us and could he speak for himself he would wish to urge upon us, to suggest to us, a message of hope. I well recollect, fourteen years ago, when a meeting similar to this was convened for the purpose of inaugurating a memorial to the late Mr. Justice Ranade, the beautiful speech in which Mr. Gokhale, standing on this platform to support the resolution, similar to that in which we are now engaged in moving and supporting in reference to Mr. Ranade, uttered words which, I think, should cause us to feel a glow of hope for the future as a result of the labours upon which he, in succession to Mr. Ranade, has been engaged in the past. Of Mr. Ranade Mr. Gokhale spoke words which seem to me so applicable to Mr. Gokhale himself that I cannot do better than quote a few of them to-day. He said: 'the work that Mr. Ranade has done for us, the ideals of individual and collective life that he has placed before us, and the high example that he has given us of a life spent nobly for the service of the country, these will ever constitute one of the most precious possessions of my countrymen.' And at the conclusion of his remarks on that occasion Mr. Gokhale said: 'We can only humbly trust that He who gave Mr. Ranade to this nation may give another like himself in the fulness of time. Meanwhile it is our duty to cherish his name, treasure up his example and be true to his teachings in the faith that the nation that has produced a Ranade need not despair of its future.'

Now is not this in itself a message full of hope? Not only were we given a man like Ranade to carry on the great work that Ranade began, but in Mr. Gokhale for the last 15 years, India has had a statesman who toiled not only in all the fields prepared by Mr. Ranade but also in fields more peculiarly his own, and his work shall endure. Like Mr. Ranade he had that peculiar faculty of impressing his personality upon and obtaining the selfless devotion of younger men who came in contact with him; and he toiled, during a large part of his overfull time, with a view to organizing the fruits of this devotion upon a solid and enduring basis. The keynote of the service of Mr. Gokhale was absence of all self or self-seeking. And it was this quality which enabled him to attach to himself the following of devoted workers who are even now banded together to carry on, as far as they are able, one department of the life-work of Mr. Gokhale. Were it not for the fact that we have found that He who gave Mr. Ranade to India also, and immediately afterwards, gave us Mr. Gokhale, I should be tempted to lament that in Mr. Gokhale we had suffered an irreparable loss, but the accession of a second Ranade in Mr. Gokhale is an augury of the brightest hope. And surely, though at present we lament our lost leader and can as yet see no one fit to take his place, we may, with even greater confidence than in 1901, echo the prayer which Mr. Gokhale then uttered.

THE HON'BLE SIR HAROLD STUART.*

I am grateful to the promoters of the Meeting for giving me this opportunity of expressing my admiration for my friend, the late Mr. Gokhale. I can say with confidence that that admiration is not confined to Indians or to non-officials. It is found to a large extent among Europeans and many officials. I think, therefore, it would have been a regrettable mistake if we officials had been excluded, or if we had failed to join in this demonstration of sorrow for the death of one who was not only a great political leader, but also a great citizen of the Empire. My acquaintance with the late Mr. Gokhale dates back to the beginning of this already eventful century; and for the last seven or eight years of his life, I enjoyed the privilege of his friendship and had many intimate and interesting talks with him in Calcutta, in Simla and during his two visits to Madras, with the Royal Commission for the Public Services of India. It was in these years that I learnt to appreciate the sterling traits of character which won for Mr. Gokhale respect, friendship and devotion. It has already been stated that in some of those qualities which make for success in public life, Mr. Gokhale was not conspicuously endowed. I have been asking myself in pondering over his life, and career, "what was the secret of his influence?" He was a fluent and convincing speaker, but he had not, perhaps, certainly not in any marked degree, those great gifts of oratory which appealed to the emotions rather than to the judgment. He knew not how to win people by flattery, nor would he ever stoop to gain applause by appeals to prejudice or to any base sentiment. What, then, was the secret of that influence, an influence which extended far beyond the ranks of his own immediate followers? Perhaps, in answering that question, I should put in the forefront his transparent sincerity, his purity of motives, his disinterested singleness of purpose. One felt with Mr. Gokhale that personal ambition played no part in stimulating and inspiring him in his work for his country. It needed not the knowledge of the great sacrifices of material advantages which he had made to make one appreciate that no desire for wealth or for honours, or even for personal power or influence stimulated him in his great work. So long as the objects to which he devoted his self-sacrificing life were attained, he cared not who had the credit; and it might be truly said of him that he was one who set his heart upon the goal and not upon the prize.

The quality that I would next select for mention was his singular fairness. He had most remarkable spirit of fairness. He held opinions which were often in conflict with those of many with whom he came in contact. He held those opinions strongly, but he had a keen sense of sympathy, which enabled him to see the point of view of his opponents and to do justice to it. With many, this wideness of vision is fatal to enthusiasm. When we can see all round a question, when we can realise that there may be opinions which are different from ours and in conflict with ours and held with equal honesty, we are, perhaps, inclined to look that fiery force which is characteristic of the enthusiast; but Mr. Gokhale was without that defect. He was like the man, the Latin poet tells us of "at once just but firm of purpose," his sympathy and fairness were not created by nor did they produce any flabbiness of conviction. His opinions were always strongly held, but

* At the Bombay Public Meeting.

* At the Memorial Meeting, Madras.

held without bitterness, and this spirit of fairness, which was one of his marked characteristics, produced this happy effect. It produced fairness in his opponents, and in the many debates in which he played so successful a part there was neither bitterness or rancour. Of his power in debate I have a lively recollection, and in the first session of the reformed Imperial Council, of which he and I were members, he possessed, in a degree which found I think, no equal, a general knowledge of public affairs and on such subjects as finance and education he could challenge with confidence our best experts.

It is growing late and I will not further pursue this interesting subject of Mr. Gokhale's many inspiring qualities. In private intercourse he had a reasonableness and a winning personality which won him warm friends and devoted adherents. Now he has gone; but I do hope, that with his death his influence has not departed. You will erect statues to him in the cities of India, you will found scholarships in his name and create endowments to his memory, but the best monument to his career will be that every young countryman of his should take to himself for his standard and his ideal the conduct and the character of the friend and statesman whose loss we mourn to-day, of him "whose high endeavours were an inward light that made the path before him always bright."

HON. MR. P. S. SIVASWAMI IYER, C.S.I.*

We are called together to-day to pay our mournful tribute of respect and appreciation to the memory of a great Indian patriot who has been a prominent figure in the public life of this century in India. Seldom has the death of any public man been followed by such a universal manifestation of sorrow in this country. Hindus and Mahomedans, Europeans and Indians, officials and non-officials, high and low, all have joined in bewailing the loss of Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale. H. E. the Viceroy at Delhi and His Honours Sir James Meston at Lucknow have both given eloquent expressions to their high admiration and esteem for Mr. Gokhale's character, abilities and services. The meetings held all over the country testify to the commanding hold he held over the hearts of his countrymen. Distinguished as were Mr. Gokhale's abilities, there have been abler men than he: eloquent as Mr. Gokhale was, he has been surpassed by others in mere oratory; men of as pure character and men of equally ascetic simplicity of life there have been in India. But what distinguished Mr. Gokhale above others was the combination of abilities of a high order with a lofty character and the highest ideals, of a life of self-renunciation with strenuous and incessant work for the advancement of his country. By his strenuousness and many-aided endeavours, Mr. Gokhale crammed into his 31 years of active life an immense amount of solid achievement, which has earned for him the undying gratitude of his countrymen. His mastery of finance, his gifts of lucid and telling presentation even of such dry subjects as finance, his skill and readiness in debate, his moderation and his fearless and trenchant criticism of any measure or policy of which he disapproved have won unstinted praise from the highest officials. The expansion of the Legislative Councils and all the other Minto-Morley constitutional reforms are in no small measure due to the able, earnest and

persistent advocacy of Mr. Gokhale. Education was a subject of absorbing interest to him, and he laboured hard to make the Government take a definite step forward in the direction of free and compulsory education. He succeeded in rousing a remarkable expression of public opinion in the country in favour of the Bill, and though he failed to carry it through in the Legislative Council, he did not labour in vain. The great increase in expenditure on education in recent years is not a little due to the influence of Mr. Gokhale's fervent appeals. That the much-vexed and long-standing question of the Indian settlers in South Africa was solved in a tolerably satisfactory manner was the result, to a considerable extent, of the tact and statesmanship of Mr. Gokhale, as acknowledged by H. E. the Viceroy. During the dark days of Indian unrest, Mr. Gokhale, as the leader of the Moderate Party, used his best endeavours to rally the people round the Government and, communicating to them his own unflinching faith in the British rule, to keep them to the path of constitutional agitation. Like his master, the late Mr. Ranade, Mr. Gokhale believed in the promotion of harmonious relations between the Hindus and Mussalmans, and his lecturing tour of 1907 in Northern India has done more than anything else to pave the way for a rapprochement between the two great communities.

Not the least remarkable of Mr. Gokhale's constructive efforts is the establishment of the Servants of India Society in 1905, which, after passing through a period of suspicion and distrust, has been recognised as an institution which has pinned its faith to the British Government, and is thoroughly loyal in its object and methods. The loss of a man like Mr. Gokhale must be irreparable to the country at any time. But it is especially so at the present juncture, on the eve of the Report of the Public Services Commission, whose labours have been followed with intense interest, and which had so considerably put off the submission of its Report to enable Mr. Gokhale to take rest and get back to England to discuss the recommendations.

A life like his is full of lessons to all and to every public worker, every citizen. The pains that Mr. Gokhale took to master his subjects, his culture, his wide outlook, his sound judgment, his sweet reasonableness and his spirit of compromise, his avoidance of personal questions, his self-denial, his unwavering determination to do the right, and his tenacity of purpose, are all worthy of the highest imitation. It may not be given to all to possess Mr. Gokhale's abilities or constructive statesmanship, but it is open to everyone to work for the public good in the spirit which animated him and with the high ideals by which he was guided.

It is for the public to decide upon the form of the memorial that is to be raised in his honour. But I may be permitted to express the hope that the feeling of the public may be in favour of a statue in a prominent place like the Presidency College grounds, where it may command the attention of every student and every visitor to Madras and lead them to a study of his noble, selfless and patriotic life. I hope no narrow utilitarian view will stand in the way of the adoption of such a memorial. I understand that proposals for an additional memorial will also be put forward. It is intended that it should be left entirely to the option of the subscribers to indicate to which of the objects their subscriptions should be devoted. The form of the memorial is, however, in the hands of the Meeting.

* Speech at the Public Meeting, Madras.

DR. SIR S. SUBRAMANIA IYER.

Mr. Gokhale's name is a household word in the country, and his great work is known even to every schoolboy in the land. In such circumstances I think I shall well discharge my duty, as the mover of this Resolution* by endeavouring to answer to the best of my power a question which must occur to almost everyone present at this great gathering this afternoon. That question is:—What is the most important lesson which Mr. Gokhale's countrymen should draw from his life that has just ended? Now my answer to it is shortly this. There exists a close analogy between the individual life of Mr. Gokhale which has now so nobly ended and the collective life of his countrymen, that is, the Indian people, and therefore they, in fulfilling that collective life, should act precisely as he did in fulfilling his own. There came to the Indian people, who till then cared very little about mundane matters, all on a sudden—as in Mr. Gokhale's case—a call from within, a call to high political existence, to national life with self-government in this integral part of the glorious Empire on which the sun never sets. So far I am sure you will agree with me that the similarity between the two cases is fairly exact. Here, however, one has to make a pause, for while Mr. Gokhale's life has reached its fruition, that of his countrymen is but developing, and it will be long before its fruition also is reached. Just at this juncture, a difficulty presents itself, a serious question having been raised as to their real fitness for the arduous career they are supposed to have rashly undertaken. This question comes from no other quarter than those high authorities who have long been in special charge of these people as their local guardians, and so to say their famous medical advisers. And these guardians and advisers have given it as their opinion that their wards are constitutionally totally incapacitated for the career chosen by them, that they possess neither the strength nor the energy necessary for it, owing to the infirmities they are subject to, an incident to their past, their climate and their environment. And under the circumstances, the prolongation of their life, as it is, is entirely dependent upon their continuing to the end under the personal care of their guardians and nurses selected from time to time for them.

Now, what are these wards and patients to do? Are they to accept the advice and continue, as it were, for life as in-patients in the hospital generously provided for them and admirably maintained with all the luxurious appliances which modern science is daily inventing? Or are they to risk that life by rejecting the advice and working strenuously towards the goal on which they have set their hearts, in the hope of enjoying that freer existence which it promises? Now, gentlemen, my answer to this grave question is, as I have said, for the patients to act as Mr. Gokhale did in similar circumstances. In other words, to follow the precautions and prescriptions given from time to time for the relief of the pains and sufferings which must necessarily be experienced in treading the path to the goal, but never to abandon the effort to reach it. For, as in his case, so in theirs, the call is from within, from the spirit, which will brook no opposition, and will overcome all obstacles. Thus, acting unflinchingly, I submit that they will in the end gain their well-merited reward.

HON. SIR G. M. CHITNAVIS, C.I.E.*


My Lord, as the spokesman on behalf of the Hon'ble Members of this Council I beg to associate myself with your Excellency and express our profound sorrow at the death of Mr. Gokhale. Every word that has fallen from your Excellency strikes a sympathetic chord in our hearts. Indeed, it is difficult to convey in suitable language the depth of our feeling on this sad occasion. My Lord, to me personally as to many others on this Council the loss is very great and very painful. Mr. Gokhale was a friend with whom my relations were always cordial and intimate and the friendship formed in our youth was cemented and strengthened by years of close association in public life. I feel his death has on this account been a great blow to me. The removal by death from the scene of his activities of a man like Mr. Gokhale is far more than a personal loss to his friend. It will be difficult to fill up the void created by it in Indian public life. Mr. Gokhale combined under his unassuming exterior so many rare qualities of head and heart. It was remarked some time ago that Mr. Gokhale was sacrificing his life on the altar of the Motherland. This description is absolutely true not only with reference to any particular period of his life but almost to the whole of his life. There was hardly a moment when he was not doing something or other with the sole object of helping in the amelioration of the Indian people and he always applied himself to his work with characteristic zeal, earnestness and tenacity. He had been hard working in the public cause. He would, I am sure, have been spared long to cheer us with his genial presence. His splendid talent and unsparing industry were alike applied to the service of his country, the country he loved most and the political advancement of which he so capably advocated. When the future history of a progress in India comes to be written, Mr. Gokhale will stand out in bold relief as a strong advocate of political measures to which a good deal of that progress will be due. Mr. Gokhale's deep study of public affairs made his services invaluable and his tactful handling of them saved many a difficult situation. His participation in the settlement of the South African Indian question has been acknowledged by all to have been productive of solid results with your Excellency's whole-hearted and sympathetic support and his later services in the cause of Indian education shed lustre on a life begun as a philanthropic and self-sacrificing worker in that cause. My Lord, if Mr. Gokhale is remembered for his varied and unwearied public activity his work in this Council will form a brilliant page in its history. Those among the non-official Members who had the privilege to be his colleagues here cannot fail to miss him—, much especially the acumen he always displayed in the discussion of the various subjects and his splendid leavening debate. But My Lord, his brilliant example will be with us to inspire us in our humble work. Mr. Gokhale had quite a passionate fondness for the Council work and even in the last days of his serious illness he was anxious to join us here. Indeed he was only prevented from making the attempt by his medical advisers. We owe it to our departed friend to pay this humble tribute to his memory.

* Expressing profound sorrow, at the Madras Memorial Meeting.

* Speech at the Imperial Legislative Council, Delhi.

SWITZERLAND

BY PROF. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

 THE history of Switzerland is probably associated in the minds of most people with the romantic if somewhat mythical stories connected with its beginnings. The legend of William Tell and his friends will continue to live if for no other reason because it contains a story of the struggle of a liberty-loving hill people against the oppression of a great feudal lord, and because it thus is the picturesque expression of the historical origin of the Swiss nation. Switzerland, which in the three national languages German, French and Italian is called *Die Schweiz*, *La Suisse*, and *Svizzera* respectively, takes its name from Schwytz, one of the Forest Cantons on the banks of the Lake of Lucerne. As in the case of Judaea, England, Scotland and India, the name of a part has come to be applied to the whole of the country. It may be noted that while we call the country the land of the Switzers we have adopted the French form of the word for the name of the people and call them Swiss.

Apart from its romantic character the history of Switzerland is of great interest to the historian. Switzerland is the earliest of existing federal states. In its history we have an almost continuous transmission of the federal idea from the middle ages to the present time. Sidgwick in his *Development of European Polity* points out that Switzerland and England are parallel in respect of continuity of development. The Swiss federation is to the federal type of state almost what England is to the unitary type. But there is this difference. England has been the model for other unitary states, but America and not Switzerland has been the federal pattern. The American constitution is in great measure modelled upon the English, and the present Swiss constitution has been largely influenced by that of the United States.

The history of the Swiss Federation begins with the union of the Forest Cantons, Schwytz, Uri and Unterwalden. These cantons originally formed part of the Duchy of Swabia. When the line of the Hohenstauffen Dukes of Swabia became extinct their vassals, whether feudal lords or rural communities, held their lands directly from the Emperor, but the great lords tried to step into the vacant place and to bring their neighbours under their power. This was specially the aim of the Counts of Hapsburg who acquired

large territories in Swabia, and aimed at reviving the title of Duke of Swabia. The Swiss Federation was originally merely a defensive alliance formed for the purpose of resisting the oppression of the feudal lords and especially of the Hapsburgs. The election of Rudolf of Hapsburg as Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1273 turned the energies of the Hapsburgs into other channels to a considerable extent, and the different families which contended with the Hapsburgs for the imperial crown favoured the Swiss in their struggle for independence. The Emperor Adolf of Nassau who succeeded Rudolf recognised the League of 1291, and thus by 1309 the three Cantons were practically free. In the struggle between Lewis, the Bavarian, and Frederick of Hapsburg for the Empire the Swiss assisted Lewis. To punish them for this Leopold of Hapsburg led an army against them but was defeated at Morgarten in 1315. Lucerne joined the confederacy in 1330, and by 1353 Zug, Glarus, and the important cities of Bern and Zurich had also become members of it. The struggle with the Hapsburgs continued, but the battle of Sempach in 1388, in which another Leopold of Hapsburg was slain, put an end to the Hapsburg claims of over-lordship. Between 1353 and 1513 five other cantons joined—Schaffhausen, Freiburg, Solothurn, Basel and Appenzell.

In the latter half of the 16th century the Swiss came into conflict with Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who was seeking to establish a kingdom between France and Germany. Charles had obtained possession of Alsace and his great opponent Louis XI., 'the universal spider,' by his intrigues stirred up the Swiss to attack him. To punish the Swiss, Charles led an army against them but was defeated at Granson and Morat. The Swiss then proceeded to help Lorraine which he was seeking to conquer, and it was the assistance they gave that led to his defeat and death at Nancy in 1477. A little later the Emperor Maximilian tried to conquer them, but he too was defeated and was compelled in 1500 practically to acknowledge their independence. It was not, however, till 1648, when the Peace of Westphalia was made, that it was formally recognised that the Swiss Confederation was independent of the Empire.

By these victories the Swiss acquired great fame as soldiers. They were regarded as the best

infantry in Europe and many of them went to serve as mercenaries abroad, especially in Italy. It was the fact that the victory which Francis I. of France gained at Marignano in 1515 was won over the Swiss which gained him such military renown at the beginning of his career. The Confederates also employed their military powers nearer home. As time went on they made conquests in different directions and acquired the five subject provinces Aargau, Thurgau, St. Gallen, Vaud and Ticino or Tessin. The Reformation which in Switzerland is associated with the name of Zwingli introduced religious differences and led to civil wars between the four conservative Forest Cantons and Zurich. By the Peace of Capel in 1531 it was agreed that each Canton should be allowed to settle religious matters in its own way. In 1597 Appenzell was divided into two parts owing to religious dissensions—Inner-Rhoden for the Catholics and Ausser-Rhoden for the Protestants.

Up till 1798 the Confederacy had been of a very loose character and was little more than a perpetual alliance among the Cantons, but in that year a great change was brought about. Some of the rural districts that were subject to the thirteen old Cantons were treated oppressively. In them there was much discontent and the French revolutionary movement was welcomed. In 1798 Vaud rose against Bern and a French army came to her aid. Ultimately the old Confederacy was defeated and abolished, and in its place was established a unitary state, the Helvetic Republic, one and indivisible. This was not popular, for the principle of federation was very strong in Switzerland, and in 1803 Napoleon by the act of mediation restored the Confederacy though with many modifications. The five subject territories were transferred into independent Cantons and the Canton of Grisons, or Graubünden, which was itself originally another league of rural communes, was added to the Confederation. It may be noticed in passing that Napoleon's unwillingness to recognise the independence of Switzerland was one of the causes that led to the rupture with Britain after the Peace of Amiens in 1802. The Congress of Vienna restored the old constitution and gave it an aristocratic tinge, but it recognised the status of the new Cantons. It also enlarged Switzerland by adding to it Neuchâtel which had belonged to the King of Prussia, Valais which had been an allied state of the Confederation and Geneva to which some additions were made at the expense of Savoy. Bern also received compensation for the loss of Vaud and Aargau by receiving the

Bishopric of Basel and some other territory. At the same time the Five Great Powers guaranteed the neutrality of Switzerland. After some opposition the arrangements made by the Congress were accepted by the Swiss Diet.

A strong democratic feeling began to grow up in Switzerland which sought to sweep away the class privileges given by the Federal Pact of 1815. The French Revolution of 1830 gave a stimulus to the democratic movement, and in most of the Cantons new constitutions of a more democratic type were introduced and the country districts received better representation. In Basel where the conflict was keenest the Canton was finally divided into two parts or half-cantons, Stadt or Town Basel and Landschaft or Rural Basel. Before this division was confirmed by the Confederate Assembly in 1834 two leagues had been formed for mutual defence—seven of the more liberal Cantons forming the Siebener Concordat, while the Conservatives formed the Sarnèr Bund. The Canton of Schwytz attacked Basel Landschaft but was defeated, and the Sarnèr Bund had to be dissolved.

Matters were now further complicated by the introduction of religious differences. In 1841 at the canton of Aargau passed a measure abolishing the eight monasteries of that Canton. This was regarded as a breach of the Pact of 1815 and an appeal was taken to the Diet of the Confederation. A compromise by which only four monasteries were to be abolished did not satisfy the conservative Catholic Cantons, and in 1843 Uri, Schwytz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg and Valais formed a separate league—the Sonderbund and proposed to secede from the Confederation. In 1847 war broke out and the Sonderbund was reduced. In 1848 a new constitution was adopted. The old state had been a confederation—a *Staatenbund*; the new one was to be a federation proper—a *Bundesstaat*—in which the power of the central government should be much greater than it had ever been before. The United States constitution was taken as the model, and democratic representation was made the basis of the federal constitution. The Federal Assembly was to consist of two chambers, and the American method of constituting the upper house was followed, by which each of the twenty-two cantons sent to it two representatives irrespective of its size. This constitution was revised in 1874. The powers of the Federal authorities were increased, and the democratic contrivance of the Referendum was introduced by which important measures have to be submitted to the direct popular vote.

Switzerland now forms an interesting example

of a nation that has been wielded together out of different races speaking different languages by the forces of territorial contiguity, external pressure, and common economic interests. As has been indicated, it possesses three officially recognised national languages—German, French and Italian—and a fourth tongue, Romansch, is spoken in the Engadine. It is no doubt true that there are what may be called sub-national differences in Switzerland. It may be that at the present time the sympathies of the German-Swiss tend to be with the Germans and those of the French-Swiss with the Allies, but any attempt to violate the neutrality of Switzerland would soon show that first and foremost they are all Swiss.

CURRENT EVENTS.

BY RAJDUARI.

THE WAR THEATRE.

THE month has been of a most eventful character inasmuch as in both the theatres of war the Allies have made a substantial progress which has covered their arms with glory and brilliantly enhanced their military strategy and prestige. The fighting both on the west and in the east has been of a most desperate character.

The memorable battle of New Chapelle in point of military activity and strategy has put into shade the battles of the Aisne and the Marne. Those two sanguinary engagements demonstrated the superiority of the Allies' artillery, and it is evident from the marvels of achievements at New Chapelle how far that branch of the army has vastly improved in its range and efficiency. The defeated German, wild at the vigour and precision of the artillery has cursed it and called it murderous! But what is war but scientific murder. Surely the experts in that kind of murder cannot with the tongue in their cheek denounce it when it was exactly what was done by his artillery in 1870. But if no other battle has demonstrated the truth of the world-old adage that war is a game of chance, New Chapelle has proved it beyond the shadow of a doubt. The Germans sanguine that their latest attempt at a bold spring forward with all the force of the avalanche would break the stone-wall of the Allies and give them the wished-for opportunity to make a rush on Calais was no-

where. To leave nearly 20,000 men dead on that memorable field of battle was a record of the direst human tragedy which, for humanity's sake, it is to be devoutly hoped, would never be repeated. And what about the destruction of the munitions of war, of the prisoners captured, of the flight of those who escaped from the jaws of death and of the further crushing blow to the Prussian arms! The battle, apart from its strategical and other advantages to the Allies, has given a moral force the value of which cannot be over-rated. On the one hand there is the very nadir of desperation, of the broken spirit of long-entertained hope, and of the complete annihilation of the military *morale*, on the other hand there has been the consciousness of the reward of righteousness, of unflagging patience and perseverance, of the spirit of tough solidarity, combined with the efficiency and precision of arms. There are glorious gains on the side of the Allies accepted with exemplary moderation and without a breath of undue exaltation. On the other side, there is the consciousness of the fact that hope long deferred makes the heart sick. The enemy at heart is sick of the war which he so rashly provoked in all the fullness of his traditional might and pride—so sick that inwardly he would fain wish a truce was established, so that the shattered military prestige may have a vestige which can be restored. But having entered on the war with a light heart he finds how obdurate is his opponent who is desirous of consolidating his advantages and never ending the sanguinary struggle till the blow is so completely administered as to give Europe, and specially the weak and oppressed nationalities a prolonged period of peace. All the three battles, though not decisive in determining the war, are fruitful of a variety of lessons which, no doubt, will be studied with the greatest interest by the civilised world in years to come.

Russia, too, after an immaterial set-back which was magnified by the enemy into a big retreat, has been able to show during the month excellent and satisfactory progress in the eastern theatre of the war. Russia has ever been slow but sure. It was a common belief that her mobilisation was tortoise-like. It may have been so before. But in this war she has displayed remarkable mobility, so much so that it has surprised the enemy who, with his contempt for all other great military powers, never dreamt Russia to be capable of the speedier performances. But the war in many respects has been a surprise to the Prussian. It has dispelled many of its delusions and illusions.

Indeed, in this struggle the unexpected has been more frequent than the expected. The Russian, according to the latest report, has actually entered East Prussia as an invader, and they are greatly exercised at Berlin on this event. In fact, all through such over-weening confidence has prevailed in that capital that it is no wonder the people there, so proud of their past traditions and performances, have been surprised by many an occurrence that has taken place contrary to their expectations. That circumstance informs us that after all the great intelligence department, over which they chatted so long, is not all alertness as the world was invited to believe. Constant alertness would have informed the enemy better of the very recent condition of mobilisation and many other important military matters of Russia. Next, relying on their own old methods they have now found to their bitter cost that the old tactics were no good. General Hindenburgh, who was ostensibly transferred from the west to the east, was expected to retrieve the many disasters there to Austria and herself. But to their great disappointment he has not been able to achieve the miracles which were to wipe off the lost military prestige. That General has been out-generalled and outflanked on the Vistula by the superior strategy of the Grand Duke. Aye, so much so that Germany has been constrained to recognise the terrible reverse to her arms recently. The siege of the Austrian fortress of Przemyśl is also coming to a close which will greatly strengthen the hands of Russia. In the Carpathian Passes the Russians have been able to maintain more than their own and are pushing every new advantage gained.

Aircraft, too, has achieved no little kudos for the allied armies. In Flanders and on the Rhinish frontier, both English and French aircraft strategists have been able not only to accomplish their first purpose of spying the position of the enemy. They have so far hit by way of bombs many an ammunition factory, railway bridges and stations and other objects of importance to the enemy, that it is now recognised in all quarters that even in this new and untried branch of warfare the superiority of the allies cannot be challenged.

So far then the month has been of the greatest satisfaction to the Allies. They have been able to consolidate their gains, push further their advantages and are besides in a stronger position than at the date of the outbreak of the war to wage the struggle. The recruiting of the additional army is most satisfactory according to

Lord Kitchener. And now with the advent of spring the British will be in a position to take a calculated offensive along with the French. The Belgians too have displayed a marvellous power of patience and recuperation which are the theme of universal praise. King Albert has so effaced himself, while identifying himself with his brave army, however diminished, that he is little heard of. But he lives to go down in history as the one sovereign of a little State which has dared to stake its all to rid Europe of the dominating military tyranny.

NAVAL ACHIEVEMENTS.

Coming to the naval achievements of the Allies the first and foremost place must be assigned to the successful operations going on for days past at the Dardenelles. The narrows there have been opened while a complete havoc has been made of the principal fortifications at the entrance. The uncertainty of the weather now and again arrests the continuance of the operations but the allied squadron is sanguine that a few short weeks will see the end which will open the way for Russia to get out from the Black Sea and make free the imprisoned merchant fleet to enable them to go to their several destinations. For one thing, wheat from Odessa, so badly wanted by the western Allies, will flow in large quantities and relieve the tension which is beginning to be felt. The naval blockade in North Sea is as obdurate and effective as it was six months ago. The tentacles of Sir John Jellicoe's fleet have been so spread that the enemy finds it hard to dare meet it. Thus the greatest naval achievement, an achievement whereby British trade lures everything, even the submarines of the enemy, and carries on the international trade of the world for itself and the neutrals. If 20,000 merchant ships go about freely with their enormous tonnage to every part of the world, who could deny the efficacy of the blockade, specially bearing in mind that the 1,300 ships of the enemy are so stranded here and there that it is impossible for them to move out even a mile in any direction. To add to the good fortune of the Allies in matters naval, there is the good news of the sinking of the cruiser *Dresden* which had escaped the chase of Admiral Sturdee off Falkland Isles. It is also authoritatively stated that out of seven of the submarines of the enemy four have gone to the bottom of the sea for which loss he is the poorer. Again, though the piratical proclamation of the great sovereign pirate came into force on the 18th February last, it seems that the actual loss to

British merchant vessels is not beyond 9 out of all ships numbering 17—at any rate during the first week. So that it would seem it may be many months, perhaps years, before the pirates of the Kiel are able to carry out their threat to destroy the mercantile fleet of the British. Meanwhile vessels go and come without fear albeit with caution, while the merchantmen now know how to steer clear of the submarines. At Smyrna, too, the British squadron has been able to successfully bombard that world-old town. The boasted Ottoman has not been heard of at Suez Canal which, like the brave warden of the marches, is keeping the passage clear for all sea-going vessels save those of the enemy. The land warfare too has collapsed.

CONTRABANDS AND WAR ECONOMICS.

The neutrals have been sorely tried by the piratical proclamation of the Germans. And the British by proclamation have fairly and reasonably defined their own action on the high seas infested by the Prussian sea-brigands. Meanwhile the pro-German Americans in the United States are loud in their hollow protestations and threats at England's proclamation for all neutrals. The task of President Wilson has been of a most arduous character. He is really on the horns of a dilemma. He will not strike and is still afraid to wound. But such a halting policy cannot last long. Diplomatic correspondence is active, and we dare say the Allies will be able to define the restrictions and limitations of contraband commodities in neutral vessels and the duties and responsibilities of neutral States. The economic situation is greatly perturbed in Germany by reason of the efficient North Sea blockade. But the economic inconveniences caused by the circumstances of the war both to the belligerents and the neutrals is great. But what cannot be cured for the present must be endured. None can forecast what may be the fortunes of the war in the near future. Nor can any one venture to predict the beginning of the end.

FOUR GREAT PARSEES.

DADABHAI NOWROJI: A sketch of his life and career. With copious extracts from his speeches and writings. Price As. 4.

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G. A. Natesan & Co., Sunkurama Chetty Street, Madras.

THE WORLD OF BOOKS.

[ONLY SHORT NOTICES APPEAR IN THIS SECTION.]

The Mastery of the Air. By William Claxton: Blackie and Son, Ltd., London.

Modern Weapons of War. By Cyril Hall: Blackie and Son, Ltd., London.

By this time it has become a truism to say that this is the first time in the history of warfare when the combatants are waging war on earth, air and water. Fight in the air is quite a new thing, and Mr. William Claxton sets forth the romance of triumph in the realms of air by tracing the fascinating progress of aviation in recent times. Without any pretensions to scientific and technical exclusiveness the author records the achievements of the pioneers in the field with well-balanced appreciations of the heroes of the air. Modern weapons of warfare are so advanced and subtle in their variety that a layman can hardly distinguish between the various instruments employed in the modern battlefield. Mr. Cyril Hall has succeeded in giving the reader a general idea of the distinctive weapons and their methods of usage in the ten interesting chapters, which include a study of the different kinds of warfare on earth, air and water.

Both the books are profusely illustrated.

The "Hindi Punch" 1914. Edited by Barorji Nowroji, Bombay. Re. 1-4: G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.

The cartoons from the *Hindi Punch* for 1914 are of special interest as the topics include the great war in Europe. As usual the political and social topics of the year are treated with considerable skill and knowledge and *Punch's* characteristic comments give a special piquancy to the subjects. The picture on the front page is an index to the varied contents:—Mr. Punch standing by a great gun and shooting down Krupps and Militarism, Caste and Colour Prejudice. It is a good pictorial history of twelve months in one page.

The Dream of Dreams and other Short Stories. By P. R. Krishnaswami, B.A.: Canara Press, Madras. (To be had of G. A. Natesan & Co., Publishers, Madras. Price As. 8.)

Mr. Krishnaswami's "Dreams" have yet a social purpose underlying what is presumably a book of short stories. The "Dream" is delightfully conceived and perhaps the very best of the other stories (as Mr. J. C. Rollo points out in his introduction) is their promise. We congratulate the author on his successful attempt.

India's Fighters. By *Saint Nihal Singh*: Sampson Low, Marston & Co., Ltd., London.

Now that the Indian army is distinguishing itself in the European battlefield. Mr. Saint Nihal Singh's journalistic talent has happily brought before the public a book that will surely attract the attention of all those interested in the great war. Mr. Nihal Singh offers in the space of some 250 pages a succinct and interesting account of the various types of Indian warriors together with an instructive description of their mettle, history and services to Britain. It is a bird's-eye view of India's fighting clans and offers a general idea of the extent and quality of Hindustan's military resources. The book is illustrated with a score of portraits.

Who's Who: 1915 and The Writers' and Artists' Year Book, 1915: A & C. Black Ltd., London.

These two well-known publications of Messrs. Black's have deservedly enjoyed a wide popularity. The current issues maintain their usual excellence. As a general book of reference, little need be said of the importance of a biographical dictionary of the leading men and women of our time in different vocations of life; and the Writers' Year Book is specially designed to be of service to the aspiring journalist for whom the Editor offers excellent advice and direction. No politician or journalist can be without them.

Whitaker's Almanack 1915: 12, Warwick-Lane, London. Price half a crown.

This reputed and indispensable book of reference contains as usual a vast amount of information respecting the Government, Finances, Population, Commerce and general statistics of the various nations of the world with special reference to the British Empire and the United States. Appropriately enough a good deal of its pages are devoted to a short account of the immediate origins of the Great War. This 47th issue of the reference book surpasses itself in the variety and importance of its contents.

The Census of India. By *Mr. Subraya Kamath*: Theosophical Publishing House, Adyar.

We congratulate the young author on this useful little publication. Mr. Kamath's analysis and criticism of the census of India will offer food for reflection alike to the politician and the social reformer. The Report which is generally neglected as dry as dust is made palatable in the form of a series of instructive essays.

DIARY OF THE WAR.

February 19. The German Blockade.

Sir E. Grey's Note to America.

German Note to America.

Albanian incursion in Serbia.

February 20. More German airships wrecked.

War demonstration in Rome.

German advance in East Prussia; Russian retreat.

Austrian activity against Serbia, bombardment of Belgrade.

Trial of De Wet.

February 21. German Blockade.

Germany's allegations against neutrals.

Netherlands' Note to Germany and Great Britain misuse of neutral flags.

February 22. German naval raids in the Atlantic. Submarine raid in Irish Sea.

February 23. German Blockade, American ships not to be attacked.

German air raid in Essex.

War demonstrations in Italy; trouble in Trieste

February 24. Bombardment of the Dardanelles begun.

February 25. German submarine attacked near Boulogne. *Branksome Chase* damaged and three steamers sunk near Beachy Head.

February 26. Russian advance on East Prussia; Germans steadily driven back.

Bombardment of the Dardanelles, entrance forts reduced.

Two American steamers and one British steamer sunk.

February 27. Search for German submarines.

February 28. German blockade, American compromise proposals.

Bombardment of Oso-Wiers by heavy German siege guns; Germans retreat across the Niemen.

Bombardment of the Dardanelles, more forts reduced

March 1. Mr. Asquith's great speech in the Commons. The Russian advance.

British retaliatory measures.

Another American Note.

Bombardment of the Dardanelles.

Disaster to a German submarine.

March 2. Russian progress.

The victory at Prasnysh.

Defeat of two German Army Corps.

Panic in Constantinople.

Mr. Asquith's tribute to Indian and Colonial troops.

Mr. Lloyd George on the war and the workers.

March 3. Reports of the British Admirals.

Turkish Military base captured.

An outrage at Jeddah.

Italian protest to Turkey.

King George and the Navy.

British steamer escapes from aeroplanes.

March 4. Fighting round Ypres.

Success of British and French troops.

Russian victory in the north.

Silencing of Dardanelles forts.

German blockade and British retaliation.

March 5. Steady progress of the Allies.

French progress in the Vosges.
Russian advance in Mlawa region,
Fighting on the Vistula front.
Austrian attacks repulsed.

March 6. Forcing the Dardanelles

Effective work of allied warships.
French details of barbarous German warfare.
Bombardment of Smyrna.

March 7. Enquiry into Boer rebellion.

A German Prize-ship in the Madras Harbour.
Fighting in the Persian Gulf.
Turks and Arabs defeated.

March 8. Further progress of the Allies.

German artillery damaged.
Damage of a Zeppelin.
Fighting in Poland.

March 9. Air raid on Ostend.

Activity of the Russian Black Sea Fleet.
Cabinet crisis in Greece.
Pro-war Demonstrations in Athens.

March 10. German offensive in Poland.

Fresh efforts towards Warsaw.
Mr. Lloyd George's appeal to the nation.
German intrigues in the Far East.
Refusal of further German help to Turkey.

March 11. Work of British shipers.

Russian activity in the Carpathians.
Dismay in Berlin and Vienna.
British steamers torpedoed.
A German submarine destroyed.
Italy and the war.

March 12. Battle of Neuve Chapelle.

Success of the British forces.
Engagement of the Indian troops.
The battle of Champagne.
Heroic French deeds.

March 13. The Germans in Poland.

Another determined onslaught.
German cruisers' depredations.
Sinking of an American steamer.
Resentment in America.

March 14. French advance in Champagne.

Progress of the Belgians.
Russian successes in Poland.
Turkish defeat in the Caucasus.
A plot in Constantinople.

March 15. Fighting in Argonne.

French successes.
Continued progress of the Belgians.
Successful British attack.
The German blockade.
British reprisals.

March 16. Fighting south of Ypres.

British regain lost ground.
French success in Arras and Champagne.
Progress of the Russians.
German counter attacks repulsed.
German Cruiser *Dresden* sunk by a British Squadron off Chili.
Lord Kitchener's review.
Eulogy of Indians, Canadians, and the French.

DIARY OF THE MONTH.

February 20. Universal regret at the death of Mr. Gokhale—in England, South Africa and throughout India.

February 21. Messages of condolence on the death of the leader are pouring in from all parts of the world.

February 22. Lord Crewe has appointed Sirdar Daljit Singh to be a member of the India Council in succession to Sir K. G. Gupta.

February 23. In the Imperial Legislative Council, H. E. the Viceroy made a feeling speech on the services of Mr. Gokhale and the great void created by his sudden death.

February 24. H. H. the Rao of Cutch has offered Rs. 1 lakh towards the establishment of a Higher College for Chiefs.

February 25. The family of Mr. Gokhale received a message of condolence from H. M. the King-Emperor.

February 26. The Annual Exhibition of the Madras Agri Horticultural Society was opened to-day by H. E. Lord Pentland.

February 27. The men condemned to death in the Delhi conspiracy case have appealed to the Viceroy for clemency.

February 28. The murder of Inspector Suresh Chunder Mookerjee and the consequent arrest of 4 or 5 political suspects in Calcutta is reported.

March 1. A Calcutta Police Note reports the recovery of a number of pistols and other arms and ammunitions which have figured in the recent outrages.

March 2. Sir William Meyer, the Finance Member, presented the Financial Statement to-day.

March 3. A Special Bench of the Lahore Chief Court heard the appeal of Mr. Mahomed Ali of the *Comrade*.

March 4. H. E. Lord Hardinge opened the "Hardinge Bridge," and unveiled the Ripon and Minto Statues in Calcutta.

March 5. A triple execution took place at the District Jail, Palamcottah, when the accused in the Kalakad Murder case were hanged.

March 6. H. E. the Viceroy delivered his last Convocation Address to the Calcutta University.

March 7. The Karachi Port Trust has approved a scheme for the improvement of the lower harbour at a cost of Rs. 25½ lakhs.

March 8. A Meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council took place this morning.

March 9. The Meeting of the Imperial Council continued with Sir Harcourt Butler in the chair.

March 10. H. E. Lady Wellington paid an official visit to the Municipal Maternity Home, Bombay.

March 11. Dr. Shoji, Special Commissioner of Commerce, Japanese Government, arrived in Calcutta.

March 12. Mr. Gandhi and family arrived in Calcutta.

March 13. Touching references were made to the memory of Mr. Gokhale in the Bombay Council.

March 14. The Principal of the Medical College, Lahore, warns the strikers to finally join College.

March 15. At a Meeting of the Assam Council, the Assam Local Self-Government Bill was passed.

March 16. At the Bombay Council the Protection of Pilgrims' Bill was referred to a Select Committee.

March 17. In the Imperial Council the Hon. Mr. Clark introduced the Bill to amend the Indian Steam Vessel Act, 1884.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- MEMORY TRAINING: A PRACTICAL COURSE.** By Earnest Wood: Theosophical Publishing House, Adyar, Madras.
- LECTURES AND ESSAYS (Literary).** By Benoyendra Nath Sen: Dharendra Nath Sen, Calcutta.
- SHAKESPEARE: KING JOHN.** Edited by A. J. F. Collins, M.A. University Tutorial Press, Ltd., London.
- BRITISH GAME BIRDS.** By Darley Matheson: G. Bell & Sons, Ltd., London.
- STUDIES IN LITERATURE AND HISTORY.** By the late Sir Alfred Lyall: John Murray, London.
- MODERN WEAPONS OF WAR.** By Cyril Hull: Blackie & Son, Ltd., London.
- EUROPE SINCE NAPOLEON.** By Elizabeth Levett: Blackie & Son, Ltd., London.
- THE MASTERY OF THE AIR.** By William J. Claxton: Blackie & Son, Ltd., London.
- DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE OF THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT:** Fisher Unwin, London.

BOOKS RELATING TO INDIA.

- STATEMENTS SHOWING PROGRESS OF THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN INDIA DURING THE YEAR 1913-14:** Government Central Press, Simla.
- REPORT ON THE CONDITION OF INDIAN IMMIGRANTS IN THE FOUR BRITISH COLONIES: TRINIDAD, BRITISH GUIANA OR DEMARARA, JAMAICA AND FIJI, PARTS I. & II:** Government Central Press, Simla.
- RECENT SANITARY DEVELOPMENTS IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY:** Government Press, Madras.
- REPORT OF THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY FOR 1913-1914.**
- THE WAR IN EUROPE. (IN TAMIL):** The "Swadesamitran" Office, Madras.
- STRAY THOUGHTS ON THE LITERATURE AND RELIGION OF INDIA.** By Swami Saradananda: Ramakrishna Mission, Mylapur, Madras.
- THE PRIVATE DIARY OF ANANDA RANGA PILLAI, VOL. III.** Edited by Sir Frederick Price, K.C.S.I., and Rao Saheb K. Rangachari: Government Press, Madras.
- SIR S. SUBRAMANIA AIYER: A BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.** By Rao Saheb S. M. Raja Ram Rao: Wednesday Press, Ltd., Trichinopoly.
- VIDYAPATI: BANGIYA PADABALI.** Songs translated into English by Ananda Coomaraswamy and Arun Sen: The old Bourne Press, London.

- MILE STONES IN GUJARATI LITERATURE.** By Krishnalal Mohanlal Jhaveri, M.A., L.L.B., Judge, Presidency Small Cause Court, Bombay.
- INDIA IN TRANSITION.** By Dr. T. S. S. Rajan: Jagam & Co., Ltd., Trichinopoly.
- THE LAW OF CASTES.** By N. H. Pandie, M.A., L.L.B., High Court, Bombay.

INDIA IN ENGLISH AND INDIAN PERIODICALS.

- ENGLAND, TURKEY AND THE INDIAN MAHOMEDANS.** By Mr. Syed Hossain. [The "Asiatic Review," February, 1915.]
- GLORIES OF THE SANSKRIT LITERATURE.** By Govinda Chandra Mukherjee. [The "Dacca Review," December, 1914.]
- EVANGELISTIC WORK IN INDIAN MISSION COLLEGES.** By F. F. Monk. [The "East and West," January, 1915.]
- VERNACULAR TRAINING COLLEGES AND THEIR CURRICULA.** By "R." [The "Indian Education," March, 1915.]
- RAJA RAM MOHAN ROY.** By U. N. Ball. [The "Canning College Magazine," March 1915.]
- INDIAN WORKING MEN.** By C. H. Yates. [The "Mysore Economic Journal," February 1915.]

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TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS

THE UNITED STATES OF EUROPE.

In a very good article in the January-March number of the *Socialist Review*, Mr. Francis Johnson traces all the historical schemes framed for the federation of the European States which is not alone a religious or a mere poetic unrealisable ideal. The earliest proposal was made in 1023 in a conference between Robert II. of France and Henry II. of Germany, and the next important scheme was outlined by Dubois to Philip IV. of France. Writing to a friend about 1517 the famous humanist Desiderius Erasmus mentions that it was his favourite project "to assemble a Congress of Kings at Cambray. It was to consist of Maximilian the Emperor, Francis I. of France, Henry VIII. of England and Charles the sovereign of the Low countries, of which I am a native. They were to enter in the most solemn manner into mutual and indissoluble engagements to preserve peace with each other and consequently peace throughout Europe." Emeric Bruce published in 1622, a stupendous work known as the 'New Cyneas,' in which he advocated the establishment of a universal union that should include Persia, China, Ethiopia, the East Indies, the West Indies and indeed all the world. All the nations are to be represented by ambassadors, who should hold sessions at a suitable place, Venice being suggested because it was practically neutral and indifferent towards all princes. Another great and detailed scheme to establish a European Peace is recorded in the *Memoirs of the Duc de Sully* and is there attributed to Henry of Navarre. How far the plan was authentic, whether it was actually Henry's, had its origination in the fertile brains of Queen Elizabeth, or the credit is due to Sully or to some unknown person, does not now concern us, nor that one of its objects was to smash the power of the House of Hapsburg and the Austro-Spanish Empire. The design included two parts (1) Aggressive and (2) Political; the first purport was to divide Europe equally among a certain number of powers in such a manner that none of them might have

cause either of envy or of fear from the possessions or power of the others. The peaceful and political section proposed the formation of a general council of Europe on the model of the ancient Amphyections of Greece. The General Council was to have been composed of about 66 persons representing the three distinct groups of powers, the hereditary monarchies, the elective kingdoms and the free republics. Sully says that the results would be "to save those immense sums which the maintenance of so many thousand soldiers, so many fortified places and so many military expenses require, to free them for ever from the fear of those bloody catastrophes so common in Europe, to procure them an uninterrupted repose; and finally to unite them all in an indissoluble bond of security and friendship, after which they might live together like brethren and reciprocally visit like good neighbours."

William Penn's 'Essay towards the Present and Future Peace of Europe,' and the Abbe St. Pierre's 'Project for Settling an Everlasting Peace in Europe,' are also worth noting. Penn summarises some of the objections and benefits that would result from the carrying into practice of his proposals, among which might be mentioned (1) that the strongest and richest sovereignty would never agree; (2) that it will engender effminacy by such disuse of the trade of soldiering, (3) that it would produce great want of employment for the younger brothers of families; (4) that it will save money to both prince and people, and give ease and security to travel and traffic, etc. The Abbe St. Pierre wanted to establish a City of Peace in which the Senate of the Universal Republic would meet. Once plenipotentiaries come to be endowed with common sense, to quote Rousseau on the 'Project for Peace,' they might get permission to sign the general confederation establishing between the sovereigns a perpetual and irrevocable alliance. But before we may realise Rousseau's ideal we will have to break down the fetish of the balance of power and abolish secret diplomacy.

RUSSIA AND THE JEWS.

Mr. Stephen Graham, an intimate friend of the Lord Chief Justice of England, writes in the February number of the *English Review* about the instinctive antipathy of the Russians towards the Jews. Russia's great instinctive struggle is against Westernism, and to the Russian patriot the Jew appears the whole embodied instinct of Materialism, of Westernism and of Commercialism. The Jewish character is fundamentally opposed to that which is most precious in the Slav. "The Tartar in the Russian is a similar type to the Jew and indeed holds that the Russian Jews are not Hebraic, but simply the descendants of Tartar converts to Judaism. The Tartar gets on happily with the Jew; but the fundamentally Slavonic, the mystical, the careless, that part of the Russians, which makes them like the Celts in temperament, cannot agree with the Jew; to him the Jew is poison."

The Jews with their grasp of trade, their sympathy with Westernism and contempt of Easternism endanger the Russian ideal. They have an immense power in the press, are strongly entrenched in the legal profession, are the main manipulators of emigration to America and elsewhere and even obtain gains by the most infamous ways. No broad legal measure has been ever successfully carried out against them. Russian impotency is in the shape of irritation and petulance on the part of the clean-handed and inflamed malice on the part of the bribe-takers. Liberal Russia may perhaps make up her mind to protect the Hebrews, and the Duma of the future may perhaps free them and put into their hands what is their due, *viz.*, business and the law.

The war has raised the question of the Jewry in another form. The Jews have been working against a possibility of an Anglo-Russian alliance for many years and have used every opportunity to cultivate the British and American peoples in their abhorrence of the Russian Government. But in spite of this, an Anglo-Russian alliance has come about; and many think that diplomatic pressure will be brought to bear on Russia to better the position of the Jews. The pro-Jewish propaganda insists on the heroism of Osna, whom the Tsar decorated and on the valourous deeds of the Jews serving in the Russian army. It is to be hoped that within the Jewish pale they will be granted certain privileges of education and emigration and that they will be better safeguarded from the individual malice of Jew-baiters. The question of what Russia is going to do for the Jews is very much speculated upon; and one

probable result may be that they will be excused military service as a privilege. Zionism even might have a chance of realisation if the Turkish Empire falls and if in Palestine a Jewish government of financiers and representative Jews be established. And then they need not be fighting for their separate interest in the life of foreign nations and the Jews all over the world might have the option of becoming Jewish subjects.

ORIENTAL PHILOLOGY.

Professor S. Kanazawa writing in *Kosmos* (January number) discusses the question how far the races of the Orient are related to one another. There is a close relation between the Korean and Japanese languages, and the Mongolian and the Manchurian tongues also indicate something kindred to Korean. During the rise and development of races and nations the most important feature of existence was probably movement; and words expressive of movement and direction show the relationship, if any, that exists between languages more accurately than most other words. The Hebrews, Romans and Celts always spoke of the East as *before* and the West as *behind*, the North as *left* and the South as *right*. It may be inferred from this that all these races were originally sun-worshippers and they took their ideas of direction from the position of one facing sunrise. The Chinese phrase 'Kings face South' means that the main advance of that race was southward. In the *Setsuman* Etymological Dictionary the Chinese word for North is shown to be derived from a root meaning to turn away. Likewise in the three ancient Korean States, known as the Hun States, the movement appears also to have been from the North. A careful philological study of the Korean language will show that the use of words implying direction is the same as those indicated of other races about them including Japan. In Korean, the front of the head is described by a word meaning South and behind by a word meaning North. The races of Manchuria and Mongolia also reveal much the same thing and all these people must, therefore, have moved in the same direction for countless ages and must have had a common origin. The Korean language will probably be found to be the connecting link between Mongoloid languages and that of Japan; not that other languages influenced the Japanese tongue so much as it influenced them. There is undoubtedly good ground for assuming a close philological relation between the Oriental languages indicated and inferentially a kindred origin of peoples.

KESHUB CHUNDER SEN.

The most dynamical personality of his century, Keshub Chunder Sen receives a charming tribute from Mr. Parekh in the March number of *East and West*. He was primarily and pre-eminently a religious teacher; all his instincts were religious; and religion pervaded all that he said and did. One of his greatest contributions towards religious thought and life is the ideal of 'the harmony of all religions.' With Ram Mohun Roy, the conception of the unity of religions was more or less philosophic, whereas with Keshub it was essentially religious. His ideal man was one who could say that he was equally a Hindu, Mahomedan, Christian and Buddhist.

Again it is only a speciality of Keshub's Church that there is an equal and full reverence for these various scriptures in the minds of its members. They study devoutly all of them and with a perfectly open mind to receive spiritual help that each has to offer. Moreover under the influence of his great harmonizing impulse, quite a new literature has sprung up in the Brahmo Church, in which are to be found classical works on Hinduism, Christianity, etc., like Mr. P. C. Muzumdar's 'Oriental Christ' and Mr. Govinda Roy's 'Samanvaya Gita.' The thirteen volumes of Keshub's Prayers and an equal number of Sermons lay bare his inmost soul to us; and may be regarded as the outpourings of his whole heart into the bosom of the Infinite.

Another ideal for which he stood and which was based on the idea of Harmony of Religions was the harmony of East and West. Essentially an Eastern, he spoke in his latter days more as a representative of the whole of Asia than of India. But in his appreciation of the rich contributions of Western civilisation, he remained intensely national, Indian and Hindu and that is why the saintly Ramakrishna looked upon him as a modern *Janaka*. Another side of his character was his activity as a social reformer. He gave to the land a wonderful moral energy which has been the means of removing the evils of the old order and establishing a new one. His social reform, however, was entirely dependent on religion and he never went for social reform as such and it appealed to him only so far as it coincided with his religion. His book 'Nava Samhita' gives us a clear insight into his ideals of social reform and religious life. There was no more impressive and inspiring religious personality in the second half of the last century.

MILITARISM AND PARTY-POLITICS.

Sir Ronald Ross, the Editor of *Science Progress*, writes in the leading article of the latest issue of the journal, about militarism and its connection with party-politics. He says that aggressive militarism is a disease of aristocratic government, and party-politics is a disease of democracy. The party-politicians of England refused to take the advice of the best experts; they adopted the absurd hypothesis that without any power of striking effectively they could maintain the position of the Empire in the midst of other fully-armed nations. The general moral law that every male citizen is bound to train for the defence of his country did not appeal to them. Their partisans invented every possible sophistry and false statement to discredit the law. But even though they rejected universal training they might at least have ensured the possession of a sufficient army of volunteers, ensured it by adequate payment and other advantages, by sufficient training, by the provision of means for supplying enough armaments and clothing, artillery and officers, for a larger army in case of need. That the whole existence of the Empire was endangered by this neglect did not move them. Their excuse was invariably that of expense and they even reduced the already small standing army on that account and squandered enormous sums on policies which have too often proved to be of little advantage to any one.

So the two great effects of this war will be that it will not only diminish militarism, but the still meaner and viler spirit of Self-Service.

"Neither aggressive militarism, nor party-politics are found to the same extent throughout the world as in Germany and Britain,—and any one who is capable of independent thought must be convinced that they are both pathological manifestations—bad habits of nations like alcoholism and sloth among individuals. Neither is essential, either for autocratic or for popular government. They exist among our two allied races owing to a certain hebetude which attaches to us as peoples. . . . Out of pride both like to adhere to their conclusions when once formed; and the militarism flatters the vanity of the new man not infrequently found east of the Rhine, while party-politics flatters the love which all Britons have for games. . . . On both sides the error lies in inadequate reasoning. . . . It is due in the first place to the incompetence or wickedness of those by whom the mass of men allow themselves to be ruled—the prince who pretends to possess the mandate of God, or the politicians who pretend to possess the mandate of the People; and secondly to the fact that however far civilisation has progressed, the mass of men still remain intellectually in but little better condition than they were in when they smote each other with sticks and hammered each other to death with stones."

MEREDITH AND HIS FIGHTING MEN.

The Rev. James Moffatt contributes a learned article to the current number of the *Hibbert Journal* a psychological analysis on the military and naval figures who come out prominently in Meredith's works. He himself was in close touch with the two services and the praise of Nelson throbs in his verses upon "Trafalgar Day" and "October 21, 1905." His "Harry Richmond" and "Amazing Marriage" portray varied types of the seaman like William Bulstead, a seaman of the old bluff school, Captain Kirby, "whose heart was on salt water," and Nevil Beauchamp, clear, keen, modest and fearless. But the army looms more largely in his writings and its interests pervade large tracts of his prose and even of his verse. His first venture into literature was a set of verses on the tragic defeat of the British by the Sikhs at Chillianwallah in 1849 and seventeen years later he acted as war correspondent for the *Morning Post* in the Austro-Italian campaign.

"The military society he depicts has room for brainless idle officers like Captain Abrane, Lord Suckling, Captain Marsett, Captain May, Captain Euremonde and Major Worrell; for soldiers who like Heriot and Captain Gambier serve Venus rather than Mars; and for officers who gamble, or eat and drink . . . or for officers like the sinewy, intrepid Captain Dartrey Frenellan, Captain Philip O'Donnell and his rollicking cousin Captain Con. and the quiet generous figure of Major Waring who almost represents Meredith's ideal of the British officer. . . . The fact that Meredith set his plots among the English upper classes explains not only the predominance of military over naval officers, but the comparative absence of any interest in the rank and file. . . . Another consequence of the same fact is the absence of any battle-scenes. It did not suit his analytical method to indulge in descriptions of adventures and exploits. He pre-supposed a quick-witted, thoughtful audience who would be less interested in events than in the ideas which led up to them and in the complications which they produced for character. . . . But while the majority of his fighting men are out of the services, he often contrives to lace his sane philosophy of patriotism to their figures. . . ."

But more interesting than all the military characters in his novels is his presentation of an emergency of the danger of England being invaded. He says that Britain may be invaded from the continent unless she is on her guard; to ignore or to evade this possibility is to shut one's eyes to the realities of the European situation for the sake of being comfortable, and that is a piece of criminal folly as disastrous for a nation as for an individual. He did not belong to the Blue-Water School. He was proud of the navy, but he saw that an army was needed behind it and an adequate army too.

INDIAN EDUCATION.

Dr. Sudindhra Bose, of the State University of Iowa, writes a telling article in the March number of the *Modern Review* about the various ways in which education is being restricted and hampered in India. What we need to-day above all else is a democracy of education and the provision of the ideal equality of opportunity for the highest sort of equipment in order to prepare for the largest kind of living. Indian educational officers continually harp upon the fact that a reduction of the number of pupils in the schools is essential to the efficiency of instruction. But, does not it follow, that if Government should wish to restrict the number of students per school, it must first of all build sufficient schools and provide ample accommodation for all who desire and have a right to desire an education? The policy of efficiency, if carried to its logical results, can have but one result; instead of raising the level of efficiency of existing schools, it will on the contrary tend to eliminate the schools themselves. America fully realises that she could not educate her children unless she was willing to pay the price; and her cost for common school education is about thirteen rupees per capita of her population. In British India, a trifle over five annas per head is all that is spent for education. The classic excuse that there is no money in the Indian treasury should no longer be trotted out in the broad light of free criticism. And if the Indian treasury should be really so bankrupt that it cannot afford to have the necessary number of schools, why then is there so much emphasis placed upon the type form and architectural beauty of the school buildings? Government should recall President Garfield's ever-memorable remark that "a log with Mark Hopkins at one end and a boy on the other makes the ideal college." Principal James' remarks in his *Education and Statesmanship in India*: "Are we sure we can gauge all consequences of universal education, and that, if we could, we would welcome them all?"—this is a cold blooded insinuation for a so-called Indian apostle of learning to make. The legislators of the States of America only make general school-laws and leave them in two-thirds of the States to the discretion of the State Board of Education for their enforcement; and the Board is either nominated by the popularly elected Governor or chosen altogether by the State Legislature. The grandmotherly interference of official Chancellors and Rectors such as exists in Indian Universities is conspicuous by its absence in America.

EMERSON THE NIHILIST.

In the October number of the *International Journal of Ethics*, Mr. C. G. Shaw of the University of New York reads the message of Emerson and interprets it as the best expression of idealistic nihilism. 'Endowed with a pure soul, which saved him from personal contumely and equipped with a superb style which usually tempered and veiled his severe philosophy, Emerson did not hesitate to elaborate ideals which, at a later period, were to characterize such disturbed and maligned souls as Baudelaire and Wagner, Stirner and Ibsen. In spite of the purity of his soul and the serenity of his art, Emerson did not shrink from the anarchistic, the immoralistic and the irreligious ideas; such were the different hues which darted from the star of individualism as it shone upon his head. To-day when warm and social winds are fanning all minds, this cold current of the anti-social cannot fail to be wholesome and stimulating. . . . Nietzsche's hardness, his coldness, his acidiferous ethics were anticipated by Emerson, whose *Essays* of 1841 may be considered the beginning of downright egoism in the world.'

To him, true and false, good and bad, sacred and profane were but so many artificial distinctions of no authority to the healthy happy ego. Self-hood alone is categorical, and all else, truth, goodness, holiness and the like is purely hypothetical. He agreed with Blake and Nietzsche that the good is the strong, the bad is the weak. He assumes the anti-social attitude, because he feels that society is incapable of that development which by divine right belongs to the individual. His distrust of the social, whose evolutionary capabilities are now advertised in every new work on Sociology, was due to his feeling that the evolution of society, like society itself, is nothing but an illusion. Like Karl Marx, Emerson was unwilling to attribute to any man or group of men the act of choice whence the institution of Law and Capital was foisted upon the sons of men. His best and foudest anarchism was of a theoretical nature and found its expression in the essays on *Circles* and *Nominalist and Realist*.

It is necessary to read Emerson anew in the fresh light of individualism and the need of his nihilism is painfully apparent in our culture of to-day. He shows us the supreme lesson, that to be one's self, man must will himself while the path to personality is often accompanied by a peculiar acquaintance with grief.

THE BAHAI MOVEMENT.

The message of the East to the West given by Abdul Baha otherwise known as Abbas Effendi, and which has inspired love and devotion over all America, is but a counterpart of that wave of spirituality which is at present sweeping through the world and finding expression in many forms and of that general transition of human thought from intelligent scepticism to intelligent mysticism. Bahaism began in martyrdom like the dawn of early Christianity and the essence of it lies in the fact that the founder does not ask his followers to leave their religion but to love it, to look back through the mists of ages and discern its true spirit. Its first teacher Baha'O'Allah suffered intense persecution at the hands of the Ottoman Government and died in 1892, leaving his son Abdul Baha to carry on the Bahai teaching to the West by visiting Europe and the American continent. Both have recommended the adoption of a universal language, such as Esperanto to be learnt by every one in addition to his or her mother tongue; they proclaim the equality of sexes and make it a rule of the Bahais to educate their daughters at least as well as their sons and even enjoin the childless to educate a child. Abdul Baha declares "there is no opposition between religion and science; they are two wings upon which man's intelligence can soar into the heights; with which the human soul can progress." The leader does not preach but prefers to teach. Although he has addressed several large public meetings, his usual talks are much more informal. And it is not his words so much as his spirit which carry conviction, and this spirit is reflected in his followers to such a degree that to find oneself in a Bahai assembly is to find oneself among friends animated by a real spirit of mutual help and brotherhood; and a wonderful spirit of real Christian brotherhood animates all the Bahai communities. Professor Vambery, the distinguished Orientalist, discerned behind the Bahai ideals and deeds the eternal welfare and prosperity of the world of humanity and promised to serve the leader under all conditions. The Bahai community is strong in Acre, Haifa and other places in Turkey and is getting increasing support from America and even Germany and England. The whole movement should not be called a new religion but is rather the renewal of the Divine Message given by the Old Testament prophets as well as by Zoroaster and Confucius, the Buddha and Mahomet and embodied for Christians in the Sermon on the Mount.

THE VATICAN AND THE WAR.

Mr. Dell writing on the attitude of the new Pope Benedict XIV. toward the war in the February number of the *Fortnightly Review* tries to remove some of the popular misapprehensions that have crept into the papers about the Franco-phile tendencies of the Vatican. Baseless reports were first circulated that the Pope issued an Encyclical in which he declared that the responsibility for the war rested on Germany and that he wrote a private letter of a comminatory nature to the German Emperor. We have at last an authentic pronouncement of the Pope on the subject of the war, the *Encyclical Ad Beatissimi* which has had on the French Catholics much the effect of a douche of very cold water. Far from condemning Germany for being the cause of the war, the Pope seems to attribute the war to causes which suggest that, in his opinion, France and England are more to blame for it than Germany and Austria. Like Pius X. condemning the *Sillon* and democracy in general, the Pope enlarges upon the various manifestations of the evil that are the root-cause of the war especially on 'the absence of respect for the authority of those who exercise ruling powers;' in other words the crimes of democracy are the root-cause of the war, and the democratic countries engaged are France, England and Belgium. It is France that is specially aimed at; because it is there that Socialism has taken the strongest hold and class-antagonism has been keenest; that the plastic minds of children have been moulded in godless schools and the Holy Religion of Christ has been renounced by the State. On the other hand Austria recognises the Catholic Church as the State-religion and though Germany does not, the relations of the German Catholics with the Government are very close and the centre Catholic party in the Reichstag has been one of the chief supports of militarism; and, in fact, these two are almost ideal States according to the principles of Benedict XV.

The Encyclical is far from being the only evidence of the pro-German and pro-Austrian tendencies of the Vatican. It has been consistently exerting its influence against the participation of Italy in the war on the side of the Allies while the Catholic parties in Spain, Portugal and Holland are violently pro-German, and on the contrary, all the democratic and anti-clerical elements are everywhere on the side of the Allies. Half the Belgian people are freethinkers, England is heretical, Russia, Servia and Montenegro are schismatic, Japan is pagan, and France is free-

thinking. The Papacy fears that in a completely democratic Europe, it would have a precarious future and its fears are justified.

But the Vatican diplomatists know that the victory of Germany and Austria is not certain, and they wish to be prepared for any emergency. The Pope will claim to be represented in the peace negotiations and will then raise the question of 'the freedom of the Church;' and to this end he has made desperate efforts to enter into diplomatic relations with England and France in order when the time comes to put forward his claims, and the English Government has allowed itself to be duped into sending Sir Henry Howard to Rome to lay the case for the Allies before the Pope. The only result of this action will be to enhance the prestige of the Papacy and enable it to intrigue more effectually on behalf of Germany and Austria.

PILLAI PERUMAL AIYANGAR.

Mr. V. Rangachari contributes in the March number of the *Theosophist* a short biographical sketch of Pillai Perumal, which is based on the *Pulavar Purana* and the *Abidhana Chintamani*. Some say he was in the service of the renowned Tirumala Naik of Madura, and others again affirm that he was the disciple of Bhatta who was the successor of the great Ramanuja. Judging from the language of his works, his character as a religious leader and the more common tradition about him prevailing among the Vaishnavites, he must have lived in the early days of modern Vaishnavism when extreme sectarianism characterised it. His works collectively known as the *Ashtaprabandha* display the deep intensity of feeling which characterises him and his extraordinary skill in versification. His devotion was characterised more by intensity than by reason, more by narrow-minded though all-absorbing devotion than by a true spirit of philosophy. In his devotion to Ranganatha, he denied the divinity not only of Shiva but of the other manifestations of Vishnu himself. And it was only very late in life that he saw the childish nature of his theological principles. But to his end he did not lessen his animosity of Shiva and Shiva's cult. After his death he formed a fit subject of apotheosis and worship for his sectarian enthusiasts. But while his name as a religionist will, among us, owing to the nature of the times, receive a comparative eclipse, his reputation as a scholar and a poet will gain for him increasing appreciation.

ORIENTAL SCHOLARSHIP IN EUROPE.

Mr. G. N. Bandyopadhyay, writing in a recent number of the *Dacca Review*, describes the regiment of Oriental scholars made up of recruits from different nations and divided into certain companies according to the family of languages to which their labours have been directed. They are aptly called the 'Rolling-stock' capital of the knowledge-concern, just as the libraries are the dead-stock. The Indianists or Aryanists among them are the most numerous, the most learned, and the most influential. They were the first in the field and came into the possession of a highly-cultivated literary treasure. The Semites occupy a small but important field with a method as rigorous and an egoism as exclusive as those of their Aryan brethren; but the poverty of their materials had disabled them as yet from arriving at any finite conclusion as to the archaic form of their own languages. The Sinologists occupy the great but insufficiently explored fields of China, Japan and the region of monosyllabic languages generally. The Egyptologists, Assyriologists and Turanians are of different varieties and have achieved several grand triumphs of the intellect. These Orientalists have created a whole period of history.

Some of these ancient nations shared certain ideas, beliefs or customs in common and the recent discoveries, remarkably those of Vicomte de Rouge, have revealed broken arches of the bridge that led from Phœnicia to Greece and that led from Phœnicia back to Egypt. England is represented in this remarkable group by Muir, Monier-Williams, Cowell Griffiths and Macdonnell; France by Sylvain Levi, Oppert and Senart; Germany by Bopp, Maxmüller, Kielhorn, Oldenburg, Jacobi, Thibaut and Weber; and America by Whitney and Hall. "The curtain has been gradually lifted up that for the last 20 centuries had obscured the Oriental world. We have no secrets which the priests would not reveal to Herodotus or Manetho or Berossus. We can handle and read papyri which Moses could never have seen, as before his birth they had been deposited in the tomb of some Egyptian sage or Pharaoh which has only now been compelled to give up its treasure, held so many centuries in the mummified hand or hidden away in the subterranean vaults. Still knowledge comes slowly, slowly creeping on, always gaining a point, sometimes making an advance down the whole line, amidst a multitude of hypothesis, the din of controversies and of shameless forgeries."

MAHOMEDANS AND THE EMPIRE.

Sir Bamfylde Fuller, writing to the February number of the *United Empire and the Royal Colonial Institute Journal*, reviews the position of Mahomedans in the Empire; and more especially the changed status of Egypt. It will be now possible to abolish the "capitulations," under which foreign residents in Egypt have been able to insist that cases in which they are concerned should be tried not by the courts of the land, but by their own consular representatives, and in Egypt they have been associated with confusion and injustice. It will always attract more of the world's attention than any other Mahomedan country and is the best placed of all to profit by the knowledge and ideals which during the last five centuries have enabled the West to outstrip the East. Turkey apart, the other Mahomedan principalities are remote from the influences of Western Europe. Persia and the Central Asian Khanates look towards Russia; Afghanistan jealously secludes itself from progressive influences. The Sultans of Johore, Perak, Selangor and Pahang (in the Malay Peninsula) have not yet come sufficiently under English cultural influences; and the Sultanates in Nigeria, though reaching the Indian standard in density of population and in agricultural development, are landlocked in the interior of Africa.

After this brief review, Sir Bamfylde goes on in his usual vein of eulogising the Indian Mussulmans and their prominent political and social virtues. Their attitude of acquiescence in a Christian Empire would be immensely strengthened if justice be the keynote of the Imperial policy. And to this appreciation of the evenhandedness of the British we may ascribe that most "sporting incident of the war, that those turbulent marauders the Warziris, of the Afghan frontier, should have informed the Indian Government that they proposed to abstain from raiding British territory so long as we were occupied in fighting the Germans. He continues that a Mahomedan who accepts a just Government as a divine institution regards the head of the Government as God's vicegerent. He would have a material object of loyalty and attachment, if the Viceroy should always be a member of the Royal family, if the King-Emperor himself should be the President of the India Council, and if its despatches should be issued in His name; and then the Council would stand before the Indians as the representative of Royal authority, and would give logical satisfaction to their feelings of devotion to the Crown.

THE STUDY OF SANSKRIT.

The recent announcement by the Bombay Government of their intention to establish a Sanskrit College in Poona affiliated to the University and empowered to confer degrees on Pandits excited a hot discussion as to the method of imparting instruction in that institution. And Mr. V. G. Kale writing in the January number of the *Fergusson College Magazine* examines the different methods of study and analyses their faults and merits. The University's intention is that the future Sanskrit scholar is to go through the usual High School course and the first year studies in the College in order to become a man of liberal education. He is then to be sent to the Sanskrit College to learn Sanskrit according to the old method and become a Pandit. But from the analogy of other Sanskrit Colleges, it is evident that the students most likely to join this College will be poor students; and telling them to pass the Previous Examination first and join the College afterwards is like refusing admission to the only good students most likely to join this College. In order to avoid this shortcoming, it is desirable that the Sanskrit College should include liberal education within its own curriculum, and should make a provision to train its scholars not only in a course of higher education, but in a suitable course of secondary education also. The admission to the College may be open to those who have a good knowledge of their vernacular. And the students successful in the preliminary course may be admitted to the advanced course which may occupy the student for not less than five years. The course may consist of the following branches, viz., Grammar and the study of the Vedas; knowledge of Zend, Greek, Latin or German; the Nyaya and the Mimamsa Philosophies with Logic and Comparative Theology; Indian and Western Philosophy and Indian Astronomy with Mathematics; Indian Medicine, and Indian Laws and Mythology. This regular course may be supplemented by lectures by well-known scholars and pandits. The technical parts should be taught, while the expositions should be learnt by the students with the help of the library and the laboratory; and the examinations should be such as would test the mastery over the subject, and not merely speed in expression; and there might be a special professor of historical criticism. The experiment is certainly worth the trial and the advantages can be better realised by experience than described.

WOMEN AND BUDDHISM.

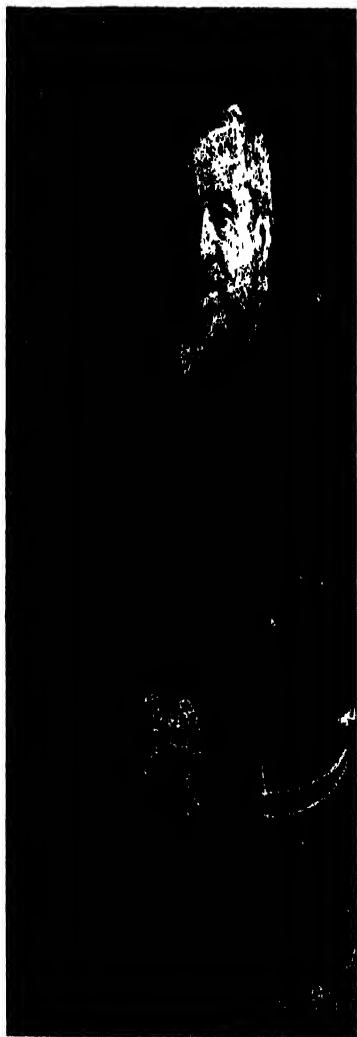
Miss E. M. White, writing to the February number of the *Hindustan Review*, explains the attitude of Buddhism towards women and traces the results of that attitude to non-interference with the position of women as prevails to-day in a perfect degree in Burma and Siam. Buddha's personal advice to his followers is not to see women at all, and if they should see at all, to keep wide awake. In His rules for husbands and wives, no obedience is demanded from the wife. Husbands are admonished to be faithful to their wives, cause them to be honoured and give them suitable cloths and ornaments. Wives are bidden to be chaste, to order their households aright, to be thrifty and to show skill and diligence in all that they have to do. But like the Christian Paul, Buddha thought that unmarried life was the better part.

The spread of Buddhism in Tibet, Ceylon, etc. was partly the work of women. The principal point to be noted is that the tendency of Buddhism has been non-interference with the position of women; there is no Code of Manu such as in Hinduism, limiting women's activity or knowledge and no tenets of submission to man, such as in the Pauline Epistles and the teachings of the Christian Church, as evidenced in the marriage services of the English State Church and the precepts of Roman Catholicism. The result of this is seen in the countries where Buddhism flourishes to-day. In none of these are boy and girl marriages perpetuated as in India, nor do Zenanas exist, while veiled women are unknown; wives and daughters, sisters and sweethearts mix freely with men. It is however in Burma, where the religion is purest, that women's freedom has asserted itself most naturally. The position of women there is not regulated by religion, which is regarded as an inward culture and as not concerned with the relationship between men and women, and this non-interference has allowed that relationship to become more natural, more free and more real than in other countries. And it is most gratifying to know that the women of Rangoon have had the municipal vote for thirty years and the leader of the women is an ardent and orthodox Buddhist who gives her whole life and fortune to social work. And judging by attendance at the pagodas, etc., women are more faithful to Buddhism than men; they carry on the torch of their religion and have great influence in keeping it alive.



THE LATE MAHARAJA OF MYSORE.
Statue by Mr. G. K. Mhatre, Bombay.

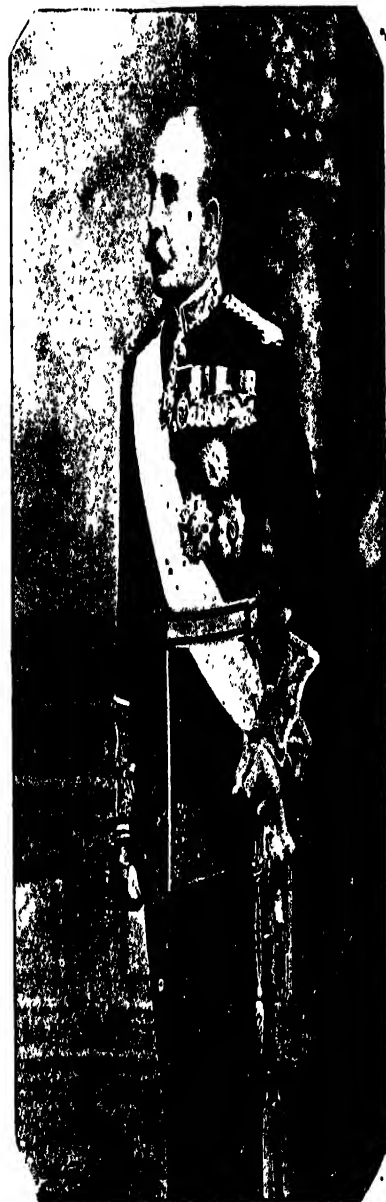
THREE GREAT VICEROYS



THE LATE LORD RIPON.
Whose statue was unveiled in Calcutta by H. E.
Lord Hardinge on the 4th instant,



H. E. LORD HARDINGE.
Who delivered his last Convocation Address as
Chancellor of the Calcutta University.



THE LATE LORD MINTO.
On whom a deserved eulogium was pronounced by H. E. the
Viceroy on the occasion of unveiling his statue in Calcutta.

UTTERANCES OF THE DAY

LORD HARDINGE ON UNIVERSITY IDEALS.

In the course of his address as Chancellor of the Calcutta University, H. E. the Viceroy made the following observations on the meaning of University life in India :—

“What I wish to say a few words about to you to-day is the meaning of university life and the part that you students should play in it. In the modern state, one of the chief objects of those who are responsible for its good government should be encouragement of the moral and intellectual development of the people. The natural channel through which the progress should be safely obtained is through its educational establishments such as universities and schools. The primary schools are the lowest of such institutions and are intended to educate and raise the people of the soil, while the secondary schools to which a comparatively limited number proceed are utilised for the development of education and expansion of knowledge amongst a class of people who, as useful members of the commonwealth, are in a position to exercise a beneficial influence on their surroundings, and on those who have not had the privilege of enjoying similar advantages. But it is from the universities that we hope and expect to find those pioneers of higher intellectual thought and reason, who not only contribute to the knowledge of the world, but also impress upon the State the individuality of their views and the refining influence of their higher aspirations. In this sense the university plays a very important part in the State since it is indisputable that, with but few exceptions, those who rise to the highest positions in the public and intellectual life of the nation are those who have passed through the portals of the university and have thereby acquired not merely academic knowledge, but a wider outlook upon life together with a more penetrating insight into the ways and character of men. It is the higher and more intelligent life of the university that should be the training ground of the nation's most distinguished sons, whether in public life or in the highest intellectual pursuits. Thus it is in accordance with the duty of the State and an act of patriotism in all those concerned to maintain the universities at the highest possible level of intellectual efficiency,

and in so doing they may rest assured that, with the course of time, men of the highest talent and intellect will emerge, and that their efforts will not have been in vain.

“Now it is as well that students also should realise their duties and responsibilities towards the university of which each one of them is a small but component part. Just as they enjoy the advantage of the prestige of the university, so they should do all in their power to maintain and even to uplift it. The best way to do this is to make the utmost of their opportunities, to foster noble thoughts, to develop intellectual ideas and to strive to live at a higher level of life. The path is hard and stony, and it is only by incessant toil and strenuous effort that the goal of learning can be reached. It is not in the backwaters of university life, but in the full stream of mental activity and intellectual competition produced by contact with greater minds that the cultivation of the intellect can be perfected. These are opportunities which present themselves during your university career. To reap the full benefit of your residence at the university you must strive for concentration in your ideas and assiduity in your studies. At the same time there is plenty of room for enjoyment, and toil brings with it its own reward, its own happiness. Those who aim at reaching the highest plane must live accordingly, and must look for their pleasures and enjoyment in the lighter side of intellectual research. Do not forget that the night cometh when no man can work. So also with character without which learning is of no avail to secure success in life. The precepts and principles of character can only be inculcated from earliest childhood and cannot be taught, though they may be inspired by noble example. As was said recently by a great English statesman : ‘You cannot have a class of character or a class of morals, but you can imbue individuals with the tone and atmosphere of your universities and your professors.’ It is character in combination with learning that makes a man, the man of whom the State needs so many, and for whom the demand is unfortunately far greater than the supply. Man is as he has made himself; man will be as he makes himself. It is true that external circumstances may influence the development of a man, nevertheless his ultimate formation depends largely

upon himself, and in his daily life he is determining his own future and what sort of man he shall be. The highest code of ethics and of chivalry, embracing honour, loyalty, uprightness and devotion to duty for duty's sake, are qualities that must be cultivated from infancy, and a noble character created by noble deeds a source of inspiration and provides an example for future emulation. These are the men who succeed in the world's rivalry, and it is such men that I would wish to see trained and developed in this great university. India has need of every one of such men and the need grows greater every day. So long as such men are produced in these seats of learning no nation need despair, and I look forward with the hope and confidence that the students of this university in particular may even now and in the future so shape their lives that on their arrival at the age of maturity they may each in his own way, whether in the field of literature or science or whether in public or private life, render valuable assistance and co-operation to the Government of India in welding together into one civilised and progressive whole the destinies of this great Empire. They should also endeavour to show to the world that the East is not only recovering its former position of supremacy in the arts and sciences, but that India is at the same time training up a race of men who in the words of Milton, the great poet and educationist, shall be "enflamed with the study of learning and the admiration of virtue; stirred up with high hopes of living to be brave men and worthy patriots, dear to God, and famous to all ages."

LORD HARDINGE ON LORD MINTO.

The following is H. E. the Viceroy's speech on the occasion of the unveiling of the statue of the late Earl of Minto at Calcutta on the 4th instant:—

"It is my valued privilege to-day to unveil the statue of my distinguished predecessor, the Earl of Minto. At the short interval of time that has elapsed since Lord Minto's Viceroyalty ended, it is not easy to appraise the true value of an administration which has so recently passed into history; but the period, during which the affairs of India were entrusted to his guidance was so full of interest that you will perhaps forgive me if I dwell for a few moments on one or two of the more striking features. His Viceroyalty may be described as a record of difficulties and dangers, bravely faced and honourably overcome. During the years which had preceded, if there had been a gathering in India, there would be a very considerable feeling among many moderate

and loyal Indians, who, conscious that they were capable of taking an honourable and useful part in the government of the country, contended that their legitimate ambitions in this direction were insufficiently recognised. That intuitive sympathy, which was one of the most striking characteristics of Lord Minto's nature, was quick to recognise the legitimate grievance that underlay this feeling, and he addressed himself without delay to finding a means of satisfying these aspirations. His task was rendered more difficult by a small body of the extremists, who hoped to wring concessions from the Government by acts of violence and crime. To a weaker man it might have appeared necessary on the appearance of this new agitation not only to meet it with repressive measures sufficient to ensure the preservation of public safety, but also to withhold all concessions, even to those aspirations which he regarded as legitimate, for fear that he and his Government might be accused of yielding to threats and violence what they were unwilling to grant spontaneously.

"Faced with this situation, Lord Minto showed that he possessed, in addition to that personal courage, which had already won him distinction in many different fields, the much rarer courage which enabled him to pursue his policy undeterred by the fear of being accounted weak. He determined that the conduct of a very small minority should not force him to withhold reasonable concessions from the great majority of loyal but expectant Indians. This determination at length resulted in the establishment of enlarged Legislative Councils, with which we are now familiar, and in the appointment of an Indian to be a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. The inauguration of these changes will be within the memory of most of you here to-day, and at this short interval of time it is impossible to pass a final verdict upon their value.

"But I may say with confidence that the splendid loyalty of India, at this time of the Empire's need, is in no small measure due to the wise and sympathetic policy which Lord Minto pursued in the face of much opposition, and he will always be remembered in India as one who tried to meet the just claims for political recognition with generous and statesmanlike concessions.

"His relations with the Ruling Chiefs were marked by the utmost cordiality on both sides, a result largely brought about by the genial personality, which had made him the object of affectionate regard throughout his career. There can be no question that his policy of confidence

did much to promote the happy relations which now subsist between the Native States and the Paramount Power, and were realised to-day. Lord Minto might be justly proud of the magnificent contributions, which the Ruling Chiefs have made towards the defence of the British Empire.

I have dealt hitherto only with Lord Minto's work in his public capacity, but I feel that no appreciation of his character will be complete without an allusion to the universal affection and respect, which he commanded in private life. He was a true sportsman in the very best sense of that term, and his personality combined a most gallant spirit with kindly sympathy and highest courtesy. He was indeed the beau ideal of a great English gentleman. May the memory of his labours and his love for India long remain to inspire and dignify the public life of this country."

II. E. THE VICEROY ON LORD RIPON.

His Excellency the Viceroy, on the occasion of unveiling the statue of the late Lord Ripon in Calcutta, said: "I feel that it is a very great privilege that I have been asked to perform the ceremony of unveiling the statue of Lord Ripon. It is not only that there has never been a Viceroy, who has been more beloved, and rightly so by the people of this country that makes it a very great compliment that the representatives of the people should have themselves asked me to take part in this ceremony, but in addition I myself had the honour of Lord Ripon's friendship, which I valued most highly, and can testify from my personal knowledge to the wonderful gentleness and kindness of his heart and the soundness of his judgment. Years after he left India, he held a prominent place in the Councils of his Sovereign, and to him more than any other men turned for advice alike in their personal difficulties and in questions of high policy.

"India to the last occupied a prominent place in his thoughts, and one of his latest public acts was to attend and take part in the debate on Lord Morley's Reform Bill. I do not propose to pass in review the history of his administration, nor to stir the dust of past controversies, but I would remind you that he came to India inspired by the liberal policy of Mr. Gladstone and the sympathetic interest of our great and good Queen Victoria. He tried to breathe the breath of life into local self-government, and it was in his Viceroyalty that that noble act of liberal statesmanship, the rendition of Mysore was effected. He gave new life and organisation to the Department of Agriculture, from which has sprung

many a beneficent activity. I need only enumerate the diffusion of useful agricultural information, the system of loans for agricultural operations, and later the scheme of Co-operative Credit Societies. He took the greatest possible interest in the ever present problem of education, and while always determined to do nothing, which could endanger the advance of higher education, he did much to organise and develop the teaching of an elementary character, the foundation upon which the whole superstructure of a proper education has to be built. He saw the powerful effect that railway extension must have in preventing famine, and gave a great impetus to a bolder policy in this direction, though steadfastly refusing to allow it to throw any additional burden of taxation upon the people. He reduced the salt duty, and from first to last was animated by an intense desire to promote the welfare of the masses. A distinguished Indian, who enjoyed the honour of his friendship, tells us that his popularity in India arose not so much in connection with the measures, with which his Viceroyalty is associated, as in response to his own unfeigned love of the people, his desire to broaden the basis of their civic liberty, and above all his treatment of them as brothers and fellow citizens.

"When he first arrived in this country he remarked in one of his earliest speeches that it does not become him, who putteth on his armour, to boast himself as one that takes it off. He refused to make any large promises, but said that he would prefer that, when the time came, India should judge him by his acts.

"How favourable was that judgment was evidenced by the scene of unprecedented enthusiasm, that took place in Bombay, when 4½ years later, deputations from every part of India came to bid him good-bye, and innumerable addresses were presented to him, and I think the secret of his success as Viceroy is to be found in the noble words he used on that occasion. 'If England,' he said, 'is to fulfil the mighty task, which God has laid upon her and to interpret rightly the wondrous story of her Indian Empire, she must bend her untiring energies, and the iron will to raise, in the scale of nations, the people entrusted to her care, to impart to them gradually more and more the richest gifts, which she herself enjoys, and to rule them not for her own aggrandisement nor yet for the mere profit of her own people, but with a constant and unwearied endeavour to promote their highest good.' Happily he was known to the people of India as Ripon the Righteous."

QUESTIONS OF IMPORTANCE

THE SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY

(Established at Poona on 12th June, 1905.)

Since the lamented demise of Mr. Gokhale, the soul of the Servants of India Society, a fresh stimulus has been awakened in the cause of that institution. The Hon. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri has since been elected President of the Society. The public of India has naturally evinced great solicitude for the institution that the late leader bequeathed as his fitting legacy. The following account of the constitution and programme of the Society will be read with general interest at this hour :—

For some time past, the conviction has been forcing itself on many earnest and thoughtful minds that a stage has been reached in the work of nation-building in India, when, for further progress, the devoted labours of a specially trained agency, applying itself to the task in a true missionary spirit, are required. The work that has been accomplished so far has indeed been of the highest value. The growth during the last fifty years of a feeling of common nationality, based upon common traditions and ties, common hopes and aspirations, and even common disabilities, has been most striking. The fact that we are Indians first and Hindus, Mahomedans and Parsees or Christians afterwards, is being realised in a steadily increasing measure, and the idea of the united and renovated India, marching onwards to a place among the nations of the world, worthy of her great part, is no longer a mere idle dream of a few imaginative minds, but is the definitely accepted creed of those who form the brain of the community—the educated classes of the country. A creditable beginning has already been made in matters of education and of local self-government; and all classes of the people are slowly but steadily coming under the influence of liberal ideas. The claims of public life are every day receiving wider recognition, and attachment to the land of our birth is growing into a strong and deeply cherished passion of the heart. The annual meetings of Congresses and Conferences, the work of public bodies and associations, the writings in the columns of the Indian Press—all bear witness to the new life that is coursing in the veins of the people. The results achieved so far are undoubtedly most gratifying, but they only mean that the jungle has been cleared and the foundations laid. The great work of rearing the superstructure has yet to be taken in hand and the situation demands on the part of workers devotion and sacrifices proportionate to the magnitude of the task.

The Servants of India Society has been established to meet in some measure these requirements of the situation. Its members frankly accept the British connection as ordained, in the inscrutable dispensation of Providence, for India's good. Self-Government within the Empire for their country and a higher life generally for

their countrymen is their goal. This goal, they recognise cannot be attained without years of earnest and patient effort and sacrifices worthy of the cause. Much of the work must be directed toward building up in the country a higher type of character and capacity than is generally available at present and the advance can only be slow. Moreover the path is beset with great difficulties; there will be constant temptations to turn back; bitter disappointments will repeatedly try the faith of those who have put their hand to the work. But the weary toil can have but one end, if only the workers grow not faint-hearted on the way. One essential condition of success in this work is that a sufficient number of our countrymen must now come forward to devote themselves to the cause in the spirit in which religious work is undertaken. Public life must be spiritualized. Love of country must so fill the heart that all else shall appear as of little moment by its side. A fervent patriotism which rejoices at every opportunity of sacrifice for the motherland, a dauntless heart which refuses to be turned back from its object by difficulty or danger, a deep faith in the purpose of Providence when nothing can shake—equipped with these, the worker must start on his mission and reverently seek the joy which comes of spending oneself in the service of one's country.

The Servants of India Society will train men prepared to devote their lives to the cause of the country in a religious spirit, and will seek to promote, by all constitutional means, the national interests of the Indian people. Its members will direct their efforts principally towards (1) creating among the people, by example and by precept, a deep and passionate love of the motherland, seeking its highest fulfilment in service and sacrifice; (2) organizing the work of political education and agitation, basing it on a careful study of public questions and strengthening generally the public life of the country; (3) promoting relations of cordial goodwill and co-operation among the different communities; (4) assisting educational movements, especially those for the education of women, the education of backward classes and industrial and scientific education; (5) helping forward the industrial development of the country; and (6) the elevation of the depressed classes. The headquarters of the Society will be at Poona, where it will maintain a Home for its members, and, attached in it, a library for the study of subjects bearing to its work. The following constitution has been adopted for the Society :—

1. The Society shall be called "The Servants of India Society."
2. The objects of the Society are to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote, by all constitutional means, the true interests of the Indian people.
3. The Society will consist of (a) a First Member, (b) Ordinary Members, and (c) Members under training.
4. The First Member will be Head of the Society and will hold office for life.
5. Every member, on admission, shall undergo a special training for a period of five years. During this period, he will be known as a 'Member under training.'

When a member has completed his five years' discipline, he will be styled an 'Ordinary Member' of the Society.

6. Subject to rules 12 and 13, every member of the Society shall be a member for life.

7. The affairs of the Society will be managed, in accordance with bye-laws framed for the purpose, by the First Member, assisted by a Council of three Ordinary Members, who shall be elected by the Ordinary Members of the Society. Every year one member of the Council, whose name shall be drawn by lot, shall retire; but he will be eligible for re-election.

8. No person will be admitted as a member of the Society, unless his admission is recommended by the Council and the recommendation accepted by the First Member.

9. Every member at the time of admission shall take the following seven vows:—

(a) That the country will always be the first in his thoughts and he will give to her service the best that is in him.

(b) That in serving the country he will seek no personal advantage for himself.

(c) That he will regard all Indians as brothers and will work for the advancement of all, without distinction of caste or creed.

(d) That he will be content with such provision for himself and his family, if he has any, as the Society may be able to make. He will devote no part of his energies to earning money for himself.

(e) That he will lead a pure personal life.

(f) That he will engage in no personal quarrel with any one.

(g) That he will always keep in view the aims of the Society and watch over its interests with the utmost zeal, doing all he can to advance its work. He will never do anything which is inconsistent with the objects of the Society.

10. Every member under training shall, during the time that he is under training, place himself under the entire guidance and control of the First Member and shall do such work and devote himself to such studies as the First Member may direct. The work and the studies will be so arranged that the Member under training may ordinarily spend at least three years of his period of training in prosecuting his studies in the Society's Home at Poona.

11. An Ordinary Member may be sent by the First Member and Council to any part of India on special duty or for general work in connection with the Society. He will be bound to do the work assigned to him under the general direction of the First Member and Council, and will obey all orders and instructions that may be received from them.

12. The Society may release a member from his vows and permit him to resign his Membership on the ground of continued ill-health or for other sufficient cause on a recommendation to that effect being made by the Council, with the concurrence of not less than three-fourths of the members of the Society, and the recommendation being accepted by the First Member.

13. The Society may remove the name of any member from its roll of Members on a recommendation to that effect being made by the Council, with the concurrence of not less than three-fourths of the members of the Society, and the recommendation being accepted by the First Member.

14. It will be the duty of the First Member to recommend in writing to the Council the names of three Ordinary Members, out of whom the members

of the Society shall elect a successor to him as First Member on a vacancy occurring. If no such recommendation has been received by the Council when the vacancy occurs, the Members of the Society may elect any Ordinary Member, or, in the absence of a suitable Ordinary Member, any member to succeed as First Member.

15. When a vacancy occurs in the First Membership of the Society, the Council for the time being shall exercise all the powers vested by the rules in the First Member singly or the First Member and Council until such time as a new First Member is duly elected; and any act done by the Council, during such time shall be deemed valid, provided that the Council takes steps with all reasonable despatch to arrange for the election of a new First Member under rule 14.

16. In special circumstances, the First Member and Council may exempt, for reasons to be recorded in writing, any member of the Society from the operation of any rule, save rule No. 9.

17. An applicant for membership may be required to pass through a period of probation before admission as a member and may, in that case, be enrolled as a Probationer on such terms and for such period as the First Member and Council may determine.

18. The First Member and Council may remove the name of any Probationer from the list of Probationers before the expiry of the period of probation. The Society will not be bound to disclose the reasons for such removal.

19. The First Member and Council may admit any person, who in their opinion is capable of being trained to assist efficiently members of the Society in their work and who is prepared to devote his life to such work, as a Permanent Assistant of the Society, on such terms as the First Member and Council may determine. Permanent Assistants may be divided into two classes—Senior and Junior—according to their educational and other qualifications.

20. A Permanent Assistant may, on grounds of special fitness and after a period of approved service of not less than three years, be admitted as a member of the Society.

21. The First Member and Council may remove the name of any Permanent Assistant from the list of Permanent Assistants of the Society. The Society will not be bound to disclose the reasons for such removal.

22. The First Member and Council may admit any person, who is in full sympathy with the objects of the Society and is prepared to devote his life to such work as may be assigned to him for the benefit of the Society, as an Attaché of the Society on such terms and under such control as the First Member and Council may determine.

23. The First Member and Council may remove the name of any Attaché from the list of Attachés of the Society. The Society will not be bound to disclose the reasons for such removal.

24. The First Member and Council may enrol any person, who is in full sympathy with its objects and who is prepared to devote a portion of his time and resources to the furtherance of its work, as an Associate of the Society.

25. Probationers, Permanent Assistants, Attachés and Associates will have no voice in the management of the affairs of the Society and no interest in the Society's property or funds.

26. All property of the Society shall belong to the Society in its corporate character, and no member, in his

individual capacity, nor the heirs, executors or assignees of any member shall have any right to any portion of it.

27. The property of the Society shall be held by three Trustees, one of whom shall be the First Member for the time being, and the other two such Members as may be elected by the Members of the Society for the purpose.

28. All contracts, entered into for, and on behalf of the Society, shall be in the name of the First Member. In all suits brought by or against the Society, the Society shall be represented by the First Member.

29. The Society shall not be dissolved by the death, secession or removal of any member.

30. The First Member may, with the concurrence of a majority of the Ordinary Members of the Society, make, alter or rescind, any bye-law or bye-laws for (1) the management of the affairs of the Society and the conduct of its business; (2) the custody, disposal and control of the funds of the Society; (3) the provision to be made for members of the Society and their families and the grant of special allowances to them in special circumstances; (4) the grant of leave to members of the Society; (5) the grant of allowances to Permanent Assistants and Attachés of the Society; and (6) the carrying out in other ways of the object of the Society.

31. The First Member and Council shall have the power to take whatever steps may be deemed necessary in the interest of the Society, provided that they are not inconsistent with the objects of the Society or with the provisions or spirit of any of the rules or bye-laws at the time in force.

32. No alteration shall be made in this Constitution, unless it is recommended by the Council with the concurrence of not less than three-fourths of the members of the Society, and the recommendation accepted by the First Member.

BYE-LAWS.

The following Bye-laws have been made under rule 30 (3):—

1. Every Member under training will be granted an allowance of Rs. 30 a month for his family, in addition to his personal expenses which will be borne by the Society, in accordance with a scale to be fixed from time to time by the First Member.

2. Every Ordinary Member will be granted an allowance of Rs. 50 a month.

3. The life of every member will, on admission, be assured by the Society, in favour of the First Member for the time being, for a sum of Rs. 3,000 payable at death. If no Insurance Company accepts the life of any member for assurance, the First Member and Council may make such other arrangement as they deem fit to secure, in the case of such member, the object of this bye-law.

4. On the death of a member, whose life has been assured, the First Member shall pay the amount recovered on the life policy of the deceased to such member or members of his family as the deceased member may, by will or otherwise in writing, have directed. In the absence of such direction, the First Member and Council shall have the power to determine whether the amount recovered may be paid to any member or members of the deceased's family, and if so, to whom.

5. The Society will ordinarily assist a member in the reasonable discharge of his responsibilities towards his children as regards their education and in other respects. The extent of such assistance will in each case be determined by the First Member and Council.

6. The First Member and Council may grant, in special circumstances, a special allowance to a member, suited to the requirements of his case.

7. If a member secedes from the Society, he and his family shall forfeit all claim to the benefit secured to him or them under these bye-laws.

INDIANS OUTSIDE INDIA

INDIANS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

It is unfortunate that in spite of the just attitude of the Government of the Union of South Africa, says *New India*, the Indian community should be harassed by offensive acts, chiefly in the shape of regulations governing trade in some thoughtless municipalities. Two of these have become already notorious in this respect. The regulations recently promulgated by the latest offender have evoked the following comments from *Indian Opinion*, which has certainly taken a more moderate view of the restrictions than we should do after their perusal:—

It is quite evident that the whole purpose of these regulations is to reduce the status of Indians residing in these locations to that of aboriginal natives, for whom similar bye-laws have been passed, and have been enforced for some years. It is quite evident that the regulations purport to make the location inspector a petty

tyrant, armed with practically arbitrary powers over the residents, or rather, should we say, the denizens, of these select localities. If the Indian community tolerates such an attack upon its self-respect as the regulations imply, we can only say that it will deserve everything that it gets. It is absolutely necessary that a strong stand should be taken. Indians are not aboriginal natives of South Africa, and they will not tolerate treatment as such. We venture to hope that the Transvaal Administration will take warning whilst there is yet time to avoid unpleasant happenings. It is a sorry commentary upon the loyal co-operation of the Indian community that this time should be chosen by selfish and narrow-minded communities, such as those represented by the Boksburg and Germiston Municipalities, for an overt attempt to thrust humiliation and dishonour upon the Indian population that has the misfortune to be subject to their control.

THE INDIAN TROOPS IN FRANCE.

Field Marshal Sir John French's account of the work of the Indian Expeditionary Force in France fully confirms the high expectations formed of the gallantry and heroism of the Indian troops. In the concluding portion of one of his masterly despatches the Field Marshal gives a detailed picture of the arduous services of the various branches of the Indian Army. Every section of the Indian Army receives its due measure of praise—the Gurkhas, Sikhs, Jats, Pathans, etc. After describing the vicissitudes of the different army corps guarding a particularly important trench which was the scene of a most gruesome attack, the Commander-in-Chief observes :—

“The head of the 139th pushed forward in the most gallant manner with the bayonet and in spite of the concussion and congestion occasioned by the number of prisoners captured, by sheer fine leading on the part of British and Indian officers, and hard hand to hand fighting completed the capture of the trenches, meeting the left of the 107th Pioneers just after daylight.”

Heavy casualties were incurred during the operations, but, the latter resulted in the complete success of an absolutely necessary action. Such extraordinary success is in no small measure due to the comradeship of the Indian and British officers and men. No amount of sheer heroism and pluck could be of any avail in the Herculean task of the troops in France. Sir John French concludes his Despatch with a reference to this feature of the war which is worth quoting :—

“One of the outstanding features of this, as of every action fought by the Indian Corps, is the stirring record of the comradeship in arms which exists between British and Indian soldiers. The Officer Commanding the 58th Rifles tells of the bravery of four soldiers of the Black Watch who advanced with his men in the final rush which recaptured their trenches. These men by their example gave a fine lead to the gallant sepoy of the 58th. Holding on to a sap in face of heavy bomb fire, they helped effectively to get the men together, impressing and encouraging all by their cheeriness and sang-froid. After the recapture of the right section four others of this splendid Highland Regiment were found in sole possession of a length of about 300 yards of the trench for a gap then existed between the left of the 58th and the right of the 28th Gurkhas. Nothing daunted, these four were firing steadily in spite of the many bombs which were being hurled into the trench. They only retired when ordered to do so, carrying one of their number who had been

severely wounded. There were of course many instances of distinguished courage and devotion which will ever be recorded. One however has won for an Indian soldier the Victoria Cross. First in every dash on the traverses with the bayonet, three times wounded, Naik Darwan Sing Negi of the 139th (Garhwal Rifles, did not even report his wounds till his company fell in.

“Such is the history of an action which is dwarfed by the magnitude of the struggle in which we are engaged. It will add, nevertheless, one more page to the glorious history of Briton and Indian side by side in arms.”

Throughout, in fact, the Indian troops have conducted themselves with the utmost gallantry and devotion. Sir John bears testimony to the fighting spirit of the Indians when he observes :— “The Indian troops have fought with the utmost steadfastness and gallantry whenever they have been called upon . . . I made my inspection of the Indian Corps under Sir James Willcocks. The appearance they presented was most satisfactory and fully confirmed my first opinion that the Indian troops only required rest and a little acclimatising to bring out all their fine inherent fighting qualities. I saw the whole of the Indian Cavalry Corps under Lt.-General Rimington on a mounted parade soon after their arrival. They are a magnificent body of Cavalry and will, I feel sure, give the best possible account of themselves when called upon. In the meantime, at their own particular request, they have taken their turn in the trenches and performed most useful and valuable service.”

In an earlier despatch, which is dated January 14, Sir John French brings to notice the names of officers and men whom he recommends for gallant and distinguished conduct in the field. He includes the following Indian officers on the general headquarters staff :—

The Maharaja of Bikanir, Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh, the Maharaja of Jodhpore, the Maharaja of Kishengarh, Lt. Malik Muhammad Mumtaz Khan, Malik Umar Hayat Khan Tiwana, the Raj Kumar of Panna, Capt. Shah Mirza Beg, the Maharaja Kumar of Tikari and a number of officers and men belonging to the various regiments of the Indian Army.

THE BIKANIR CORPS IN EGYPT.

H. H. the Maharaja of Bikanir has been spending a few days at Cairo as the guest of Sir Henry McMahon, the High Commissioner of Egypt. During the fighting at Ismailia His Highness, though attached to General Sir John Maxwell's Staff, remained with his own regiment, the Bikanir Camel Corps.

INDIANS IN JAPAN.

From accounts from Tokio it seems that the Japanese and the many Indians who have migrated thither are getting on uncommonly well. Perhaps, observes a contemporary, there is nothing about this to occasion much surprise since both, by tacit consent, have agreed to disregard the colour distinction, and, of course, an encouraging factor in the establishment of a common brotherhood—an ideal which both seek to attain—is their mode of life. Dinner they can take in common, for rice is the staple food for both; and if there is a Bengali present, he is probably as fond of fish as the Japanese; while, in the matter of tea, both of them drink it. The squalid 'tea-shop' or 'restaurant' that is becoming common in Indian bazaars is merely an unglorified version of the dainty tea-house of Japan. The Jap has loved his cup of tea since Time began; the Indian is just beginning to do so.

An Indo-Japanese Association has been formed at Tokio, and if the number of functions organised by this body is any indication of the strength of feeling existing between the two races, it is not remotely possible that Tokio may soon become an Indo-Japanese stronghold. At one of its dinners last month this Association entertained two guests of honour—one an Indian who knows a great deal about Japan, the other a Jap, who knows a great deal about India. The Jap was Mr. Furukori, manager of the Bombay branch of a Japanese bank. He has been a resident in India for twenty years and probably knows more about India than any Jap in the world. The Indian was Mr. M. C. Mallick, the well-known Bengalee lawyer, who has made a name for himself amongst legal circles in Great Britain. Mr. Mallick has dabbled in English and Indian literature, and, having seen a good deal in Japan he has published several books on Japanese subjects. He has now gone to Japan to make that country his permanent home.

FUTURE OF INDIAN EMIGRATION.

The Times in its review of 1914 says:—"The settlement of the main grievances of the South African Indians in the early part of the year, as the result of the Union Commission, provides ground for hope that in the case of the other Self-governing Dominions the war will greatly help to bring some settlement of the Indian emigration question consonant with the common interests and self-respect of both sides."

INDIANS IN CANADA.

The number of Indians in Canada remains approximately at 100,000 according to the annual report of the Department of Indian affairs. The actual population, including Eskimos, is placed at 107,221, an apparent decrease of 2,716 compared with the previous year. This, however, does not mark an actual decrease in numbers by death or emigration, but is due to the fact that it is difficult to secure accurate statistics for the interior of the Far North, and it was thought best to eliminate from the census returns that were merely conjectural. Modern influences are becoming very noticeable on the Indian reserves, and it is now by no means uncommon to find Indian homes decently furnished and comfortable.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA FOR INDIANS.

John Bull puts forward the suggestion, not for the first time, that it would be a "gracious act" to reserve or throw open German East Africa to Indian emigrants when the great settlement takes place at the close of the war: "That an outlet is required for the surplus Hindu population cannot be denied, and in view of the loyal fashion in which our Indian fellow-subjects have rallied to the flag, our appreciation could not be better expressed than by providing scope in a land climatically suitable, fertile, and sparsely inhabited, for the industry and enterprise of thousands of Hindus who are at present chafed by the limitations in which they are forced to live. Germany must be shorn of her Colonial possessions for all time, and no better start could be made towards that purpose than by reserving German East Africa for the Indians."

THE INDIAN TROOPS ABROAD.

The Viceroy received the following message from Field Marshal Sir John French on March 18:—"I am glad to be able to inform Your Excellency that the Indian troops under General Sir James Willcocks fought with great gallantry and marked success in the capture of Neuve Chapelle and subsequent fighting which took place on 10th, 11th, 12th and 13th of this month. The fighting was very severe and the losses heavy but nothing daunted them. Their tenacity, courage and endurance were admirable and worthy of the best traditions of the soldiers of India."

FEUDATORY INDIA

INDIAN CHIEFS AND THE WAR.

The following further contributions have been made in India in connexion with the war:—

His Highness the Maharaja of Datia on behalf of himself and the nobles and people of his State has arranged to give an annual contribution of Rs. 25,000 (£1,666 odd), Rs. 6,000 being from his Highness's privy purse, towards the expenses of the war while it lasts.

The Nawab of Pataudi has made a contribution of Rs. 15,000, and his Highness the Raja of Sailana has contributed Rs. 20,000, and His Highness the senior Rajah of Dewas Rs. 15,000 towards the expenses of the war.

His Highness the Maharaja of Rewa has given Rs. 5,000 for the purchase of vaseline for the Indian troops.

The Chiefs of Dhar, Barwani, Ali Rajpur, and Jhabua are purchasing and maintaining for use in Europe a unit of six motor ambulances in charge of the Rana of Barwani.

His Highness the Raja of Jhind is giving two motor-cars of the value of Rs. 25,000 for the Indian Expeditionary Force in Europe.

The Thakur Lachman Singh of the Bagsuri District, Ajmer, has given Rs. 1,000, and a further contribution of Rs. 100 a month for 12 months, towards the expenses of war.

MAHARAJA OF GWALIOR'S GIFT.

The Maharaja of Gwalior has arranged that his gift of 2½ millions of cigarettes for the Indian Expeditionary Force in France shall be made through the Indian Soldier's Fund Sub-Committee, London. This arrangement is one that will save time and trouble.

SMALL INDUSTRIES IN MYSORE.

In September last, observes the *Tribune*, the Director of Industries and Commerce in Mysore suggested the desirability of appointing a qualified engineer for each district for the purpose of working up industrial schemes and encouraging the establishment of small factories, and accordingly proposing the appointment of five engineers, in addition to the three already working under him, on salaries ranging from Rs. 100 to Rs. 200 per mensem. The Government of Mysore in passing orders on this proposal observe that the introduction of machinery into the industrial

field is likely to lead to most beneficial results and consider that Mr. Chatterton's special knowledge in regard to the installation of machinery should be fully utilized by getting more local men trained by him for the work of industrial development of the State. They are accordingly pleased to sanction the employment of the engineering graduates to start with on pay ranging from Rs. 100 to 200 per mensem. The appointments will be made only if qualified Mysore graduates are available. The tenure of office of the whole staff will be temporary.

THE MAHARAWAL OF BARIYA.

Another Rajput Chief has gone on active service in the person of the young Maharawal of Bariya, one of the Rawa Kantha States of Western India. His Highness is in his twenty-ninth year and succeeded to the *gadi* in 1908.

INDIAN PRINCES AT THE FRONT.

A peculiarly malignant fate, says the *Times of India*, seems to have afflicted the transmission of General French's latest despatches to India. The efforts of a contemporary to supplement Reuter's message by a summary of the services of the Indian Princes at the front proved incomplete. General French's despatch of February 2nd does not devote any section to the General Staff. But a supplementary despatch up to the end of November makes recommendations for gallant and distinguished service in the field, amongst the names in this list being those of Sir Pratap Singh, the Maharajah of Bikanir, the Maharajah of Jodhpur, Maharaja Adhiraj of Kishengarh and Maharaja Singh of Tikari. We shall soon have the full text of the despatches in India, and it is most unfortunate, says our contemporary, that incomplete and misleading excerpts were cabled in the first instance.

LEGISLATION IN TRAVANCORE.

At the recent meeting of the Travancore Legislative Council, the Police Regulation Amendment Bill, the Opium Bill and the Motor Vehicles Regulation Amendment Bill became law. A Bill to amend the Cattle Trespass Regulation was introduced and its principle was affirmed.

EFFECTS OF WAR IN KASHMIR.

There is a great deal of poverty and privation in Kashmir city, writes a correspondent to the *Statesman*. It was not known until some cases came into public view—and now everything is being done for the poor and the starving by the authorities. This condition is more to be found among the workers in embroideries, *papier maché* and carving, there being no sale, or a possible future one, because of the war and the non-appearance of visitors this year.

MINES IN MYSORE.

The annual imports of manufactured iron and steel have averaged nearly sixteen million pounds, while the Indian output before 1907 was about 80,000 tons per annum, quite an insignificant average to say the least of it. Since the Tata Iron and Steel Co. began its work at Sakchi, this output has been almost quintupled. The works at Sakchi alone produced, according to the report of 1913, over 25,000 tons of rails. The value of the imports of iron and steel manufactured in 1913 amounted to over £20 millions exclusive of cutlery. This disparity between the quantity

produced and the quantity imported shows the scope there is for developing to the fullest extent the possible Indian resources. From year to year the Indian Geological Department has drawn the attention of all those concerned in the matter to the necessity for the establishment of a profitable industry for the manufacture of ferro-manganese in India. But little heed has been so far paid to it. Few people remember the value of the export trade in manganese ore. Its production in India has been steadily growing. Within the past eight years it has risen from a little over 300,000 to over 800,000 tons. India has, in fact, within this short period become with the possible exception of Russia the greatest producer of manganese ore in the world. Most of the output has been exported in its crude state, only a very small quantity being employed in India. Mysore has at least ten manganese companies at work, and the largest number of prospecting licences so far issued in any single year has been for manganese, gold coming next to it. In 1907, for instance, as many as 112 licences were issued. Chrome ore, next to manganese, has had particular attention paid to it—*Madras Mail*.

INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL SECTION

THE HISTORY OF INDIAN TRADE.

Speaking at a crowded public meeting held in the Government College of Commerce, Bombay, on the subject of the Evolution of Indian Trade, Sir John Heaton presiding, Mr. D. E. Wacha gave a comprehensive review of the trade of India from distant parts of Asia and Europe and the Far East from 3000 B.C. up to the present time. He referred to the flourishing condition of India's commerce in those ancient times till the advent of Lord Clive, who in the interests of the East India Company to monopolise imposed protective tariffs which resulted in undermining Indian trade. Dealing with the present day Mr. Wacha spoke on the revival of Indian trade after free trade was allowed and said that India owed its present prosperity to free trade and nothing else. He referred to the Bombay mill industry and said that its development was owing to free trade which enabled them to obtain the requisite machinery and work properly, but he added that some new industries required protection.

EXPORTS OF FOOD GRAINS.

The values of the exports of the principal food-grains and raw materials in 1913-14 are as follows:—

	Rs
Cotton (raw)	.. 41,04,25,000
Rice in the husk	.. 20,71,000
„ not in the husk	.. 26,42,76,000
Wheat	.. 13,13,34,000
Wheat Flour	.. 1,25,11,000
Barley	.. 1,56,57,000
Pulse	.. 1,06,63,000
Jawar and Bajra	.. 86,42,000
Gram	.. 62,27,000
Other sorts (food-grains)	.. 3,13,000
Linseed	.. 6,68,70,000
Groundnuts	.. 4,88,14,000
Rape Seed	.. 4,27,76,000
Sesamum	.. 2,69,45,000
Cotton Seed	.. 2,12,51,000
Castor	.. 2,00,50,000
Copra	.. 1,55,97,000
Tea	.. 14,97,51,000

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY.

In the Review of the Trade of India in 1913-14, Mr. Findlay Shirras, the Director of Statistics, states that the production of white sugar in India has been a matter of serious study on the part of both the Government of India and the local Governments, and that as a result of the meeting of the Board of Agriculture held at Pusa in 1911, progress has been made on the following lines: A sugar engineer has been attached to the agricultural department in these provinces. He has set up a 100-ton factory at Pilibhit, which has had a satisfactory year's working, and technical advice regarding the erection of 2 central factories in the Gorakhpur district and has also advised on several projects for the starting of similar schemes in other districts of these provinces. Farms have been opened at Nawabganj and Shahjahanpur and one in the Tirhut division of Bihar for the introduction, survey and testing of new canes. In Burma a sugarcane experiment station has been opened in the area commanded by the Mon canal. In the Kamrup district of Assam important work has been done in locating and surveying several blocks of 10,000 acres suitable for sugarcane, and on a portion of this area a preliminary experiment is being undertaken by the local Government in the growth of cane with the aid of steam tackle so as to encourage enterprise on a large scale. A block of 4,632 acres of land in the Central Provinces has been leased to Mr. J. McGlashan of Cawnpur with a view to the formation of a company. A cane-breeding station for the production of new canes has been started at Coimbatore and Dr. C. A. Barber placed in charge. In Bihar 8 central factories have in recent years been erected with a crushing capacity of some 24,000 tons of cane a day. The erection of 2 or more factories are in contemplation. At Bubnowly in the Gorakhpur district, which is on the borders of Bihar, a central factory has been set up with a capacity of from 400 to 600 tons. The production of sugar in Bihar is a paying industry and the conditions there are favourable to the development of the central factory system.

Agricultural Industries in India—By Seedick R. Sayani. With an introduction by Sir Vitaldas Damodar Thackersey. Re 1. To Subscribers of *Review*, As. 12.

Essays on Indian Arts, Industry and Education.—By E. B. Havell. Re. 1-4. To Subscribers of *Review*, Re. 1. **Indian Industrial and Economic Problems**.—By Prof. V. G. Kale, Fergusson College, Poona. Price Re. One. To Subscribers of the "*Indian Review*," As. 12.

G. A. Natesan & Co., Sunkurama Chetty Street, Madras.

IMPROVEMENT OF INDUSTRIES.

Mr. Clark, replying to the Hon. Mir Asad Ali's question *re* improvement of industries at the meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council, said: (a) The question of how far the local industries can be encouraged either by Government starting model factories so far as the rulings of the Secretary of State on the subject permit or by other means has in the past received, and is constantly receiving, the attention of the Government of India and of Local Governments. (b) I may refer the Hon. Member to my speech in the debate on the Hon. Raja Kushalpal Singh's resolution, in which I explained what action Government was taking in this matter. (c) Arrangements are at present in existence in several Provinces for the dissemination of commercial information through the Directors of Industries. The question of whether the existing organisation of the Commercial Intelligence Department can be improved, is now under discussion with the Local Governments and the Secretary of State, and I cannot make any statement on the matter at present.

MANUFACTURE OF IMPORTED ARTICLES.

The Hon. Mr. Clark, replying to the Hon. Maharaja M. C. Nandi's question *re* manufacture in India of articles imported from foreign countries at the recent meeting of the Imperial Council, said: The feasibility of manufacturing in India articles which, in normal years, used to be imported from Germany and Austria, has already formed the subject of enquiry, and the results thereof have been issued to the public in the form of bulletins, while a collection has been on view in several of the leading towns in India of the articles previously imported from Germany and Austria and similar articles made in India. The Government of India do not propose to extend this enquiry to embrace articles made in other parts of the continent of Europe.

EXPORT OF WHEAT.

Sir Shapurji Broacha writes to the *Times of India* arguing that the prohibition of wheat from India is neither politic nor expedient. He says the one crop which is large, if not the largest, and most paying this year is wheat. Prohibition of exports will not affect the ryot and the wheat export trade this year must bring direct wealth to the Punjab and North-West Province beyond the dreams of avarice and indirectly to the people of India.

INDIGENOUS INDUSTRIES.

The Hon'ble Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya moved at the recent meeting of the Council that Rs. 12 lakhs be provided in the Budget for aiding and encouraging indigenous industries. He said that he would not take up the time of the Council by dwelling on the importance or necessity of doing something more for the industries. That claim was established by the recent debate in the Council. Immense quantities of raw material had been exported from India, but nothing had been done so far to develop her industries. He quoted the remarks of Sir John Hewett, who said that it was a subject on which more had been written and less had been done than in any other direction, Japan, like India, forty years ago was only an agricultural country, but in forty years her character had been changed, and she was now one of the greatest exporting countries of the world, and her industrial development had been remarkable. He urged that systematic schemes should be got up, and India should be placed in such a position as to utilise her vast resources. The fact that England could produce a finished article was hardly any justification why India should only remain as a supplier of raw material. The motion was, however, lost.

RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

The administration report on railways in India for the year 1913-1914 has been recently issued from the Government Central Press at Simla. The frontispiece represents the new bridge over the Ganges at Sara, which will open up through connexion between Calcutta and Darjeeling on the one hand and the important jute-mart of Serajganj on the other. Views are also given of the Pamban Viaduct, which connects the southern mainland of India with the sacred island of Rameswaram and reduces the sea-journey to Ceylon to a short run of twenty-two miles. The maps, observes *India*, show in striking detail the efforts that are being made to deal with the congestion of traffic on the main routes by doubling the tracks, strengthening the permanent way and increasing the number of stopping places. The important frontier cantonment of Bannu has been linked up with the North-Western Railway System; and substantial progress is reported with the Bombay Overhead Connexion, which is to bring the grain warehouses and the cotton market at Mazgaon into touch with the business centre in the neighbourhood of the Victoria terminus.

BENGAL CO-OPERATIVE CONFERENCE.

In closing the Bengal Co-operative Credit Conference the President, the Hon. Mr. P. C. Lyon, said that they had ceased to talk in generalities and had come down to details. They had had before them in the last few days the most splendid system of co-operative credit in the whole history of the world. He meant the great meeting of the Financial Ministers of the different Allies; England, France, Belgium, Russia, Servia, Montenegro and Japan were not only fighting shoulder-to-shoulder in the battlefield but they had formed themselves into a most gigantic Co-operative Credit Society that had ever been formed. They had pooled their credit and by that process they had been able to raise what they could not do individually, hundreds of millions of money to be expended in the cause of freedom. That was exactly what they in Bengal were doing on a small scale. They were endeavouring to pool their credit together in the cause of freedom. It was a work which must excite the enthusiasm of every man who loved the Bengal raiyat.

MERCHANTS AS WEALTH PRODUCERS.

Not very long ago, merchants were roundly criticised even by economic writers for not being able to create wealth, but for living like parasites on the products of agriculture and manufacture, merely by buying things for less and selling them for more. But since the eminent economist, Professor H. R. Senger, pointed out that man cannot create wealth in the sense that Nature can, and that "all he can do is to re-arrange particles of matter so as to create *form* utilities, or move goods from one part of the world to another so as to create *place* utilities, or preserve goods from one period to another so as to create *time* utilities, or finally transfer goods from the ownership of one individual to that of another so as to create *possession* utilities," it has come to be realised that while agriculture and manufacture create *form* utilities, commerce creates *time*, *place* and *possession* utilities, and that human welfare depends as much on these as on the other.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

In reply to a request by Government for their opinion on the proposed reorganisation of the Department of Commerce and Industry, the Karachi Chamber of Commerce have expressed the opinion that special full-time officers of commercial intelligence directly under the control of the Government of India should be appointed for eastern and western India.

THE OIL PRESSING INDUSTRY.

The Bombay Government has issued an interesting report on the survey of oil-pressing industry by its expert, Mr. Y. G. Pundit who had considerable experience of the industry both in India and the United States of America. After detailed and extensive enquiries Mr. Pundit has offered many useful suggestions for those directly interested in the oil industry and has specified scientific agricultural methods of extraction comparing the economic aspects of the several processes of oil extraction. He advocates the formation of Associations like the Central Oil Seed Crushers' Association of America and strongly urges the establishment of a bureau of publicity for advertising the merits of the product and by-products of the seeds crushed. Mr. Pundit deprecates the extent to which nitrogenous products in the shape of oil-seeds and oil-cakes are exported. The Bombay Government welcome his important suggestion that the Municipalities should be encouraged to treat local factories with consideration in the matter of taxation and that Co-operative Credit Societies and Unions should be actively encouraged amongst local "telis" or oil producers. A Government resolution on the report warmly thanks Mr. Pundit for his exhaustive inquiry and commends his practical suggestions especially in the matter of running large concerns and in producing edible oil from cotton seed to enterprising manufacturers.

INDIA'S MINERAL INDUSTRIES.

In reviewing the position of the mineral industries at the recent annual meeting of the Mining and Geological Association, Mr. H. H. Hayden, the new President, said: "If we compare first of all the figures for the total value of the mineral production of India for the respective years 1905, the last for which figures were available to Sir Thomas Holland, and 1913 the last for which figures are available to us now, we find a rise from about £5,000,000 sterling to £10,000,000, or an increase of seventy-five per cent. in a period of eight years. This is undoubtedly a measure of progress which may well give unalloyed satisfaction to all those interested in the development of the mineral resources of the Indian Empire. The success achieved, however, is but a fraction of what still remains to be done, as a brief analysis of the chief items that go to make up the total mineral production of India will show."

RAILWAY EXTENSION IN BURMA.

Proceedings relating to the recent interview of the Burma Chamber of Commerce with Sir Henry Burt, President of the Railway Board, are now made public. In the course of his observations Sir Henry Burt said the conclusion he had arrived at, after a tour through the Southern Shan States, was that the line should be extended from Aung Ban to Heho, and though he could not give a definite promise, he believed it possible to find the necessary money in the next financial year. He considered Yawngphwe should still be regarded as the ultimate terminus of the line, and a further extension in future would depend largely on the financial results obtained in working up to Heho in the prospects of securing additional traffic by extending it to Yawngphwe. The cost of extending the line from Aung Ban to Heho (19 miles) should be about Rs. 19,00,000, but the extension from Heho to Yawngphwe (14 miles) would, owing to the difficult nature of the country, probably cost about Rs. 40,00,000, or an average of nearly Rs. 3,00,000 per mile, and the traffic to be tapped, some 20,000 tons per annum according to figures received, did not seem to justify that expenditure at present. Sir Henry was of opinion that even if the line were not extended beyond Hayo, it would serve to capture all the cart traffic now handling trade with the Southern Shan States. He considered that practically the whole of the cart traffic would be intercepted by the railway and the extension to Yawngphwe was not imperative. He thought the question of a feeder road was as important at the moment in the interests of the development of the country as further railway extension. He considered, however, the trunk road idea (Rangoon to Mandalay) was rather in the nature of putting the cart before the horse. There was already a railway route from Rangoon to Mandalay. Sir Henry Burt suggested some one should put forward a definite proposal for a branch line for the consideration of the Government of India.

CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN BENGAL.

Presiding at the Bengal Provincial Co-operative Conference at Calcutta on February 20, Lord Carmichael, referring to the remarkable growth of 50 per cent. in societies, 60 per cent. in members and 95 per cent. in capital which has taken place last year, said: "It certainly looks as if the economic revolution to which I referred last year is coming on faster than many of us anticipated."

EXPANSION OF CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT.

A small blue book has been issued showing the expansion of the co-operative movement in India during the past year. The total number of societies has risen from 12,324 to 15,673, of which 329 are central, 806 non-agricultural and 14,538 agricultural. The last named have increased by 3,156. The total membership and working capital are as follows :—Central societies, 34,710 members, 287 lakhs capital; agricultural societies, 599,822 members and 403½ lakhs capital; non-agricultural, 109,694 members and 81 lakhs capital; total 744,226 members and 771½ lakhs capital. Taking receipts and disbursements it appears that, including the opening balance, the total receipts of Central Societies amount to Rs. 461½, while the total disbursements are estimated at Rs. 447½ lakhs leaving a closing balance of about 13½ lakhs. The total income of agricultural societies amounts to Rs. 443 lakhs as against an expenditure of Rs. 416½ lakhs in the case of non-agricultural societies. The total income of the year, including the opening balance, is Rs. 174½ lakhs, which, after deducting all the disbursements, leaves a balance of nearly Rs. 5½ lakhs. Taking all the societies together the net balance in hand at the end of the year amounts to Rs. 35½ lakhs as compared with Rs. 28 lakhs at the close of the previous year.

The following are the profits resulting from the operations of the different classes of societies :—Central societies, Rs. 6,38,577; agricultural societies, Rs. 15,21,486; non-agricultural societies Rs. 38,696; total Rs. 25,46,759.

EMPLOYMENTS FOR EX-CONVICTS.

Mr. Henry Ford, the millionaire motor-car manufacturer, whose company last year distributed £2,000,000, half its earnings, to its employees under a profit-sharing scheme, astonished the U. S. Government Commission on industrial relations recently by declaring on behalf of his company :—"We will guarantee to take every prisoner in Sing Sing (the great convict prison of New York) and make a man of him." Mr. Ford then stated that he had now 150 ex-convicts among his employees, everyone earning a pound or better daily. "I believe," he said, "the secret of redeeming a man who has gone 'wrong,' and even those who have served the State as convicts, lies in giving them employment, restoring to them adequate compensation, and thus reinstating their self-respect and manhood."

DOUBTFUL RAILWAY ENTERPRISE.

The profitable feature of railway enterprise, said Mr. Dadabhai at the recent meeting of the Imperial Council, was doubtful. In good years there was a small margin of profit, but, as was pointed out by Sir Guy Fleetwood-Wilson two years ago, so recently as in 1908-09 our railway system was worked at a net loss to the State. This year the net profit, after meeting the interest charges, had reached almost the vanishing point (53 per cent.) It was true that economical and political considerations would justify railway expansion.

In future it must proceed on cautious lines, and should only be financed by the Government in a lean year when it was unavoidable. It did not matter much if a new construction was financed out of the surpluses, provided no indication of a subsequent deficit was present at the time the allotment was made.

Mr. Dadabhai, after criticising in detail the construction of the four lines for which Rs. 50 lakhs were allotted as explained in the Secretary's memorandum, said that the constructions were not of such primary importance that they could not be put off. If those lines disappeared from the next year's budget, the reserve of Rs. 15 lakhs became unnecessary, and even with the construction provided for, a 43 per cent. reserve was wholly unnecessary.

CROPS AND COMMERCE.

In the season and crop report of the Bombay Presidency for 1913-14, the Director of Agriculture writes :—"There has certainly been an increase of prosperity in late years in the cotton tracts, and the cultivation of cotton is steadily extending in Sind, Upper Gujarat and in parts of the Deccan where it has not yet become common. Further developments in this direction will depend on cotton prices, and the present dislocation of markets will make it obvious how closely the interests of our cultivators are bound up with the growing of commercial crops. There is an increasing tendency on the part of some large landholders to invest money in permanent improvements to land, and the new Government canals are bringing money and infusing a fresh spirit into some of the drier tracts. High prices of agricultural produce, increased irrigation facilities and productive improvements to land will do much to raise the condition of the landholders, and if a considerable rise in the level of wages should drive them to depend more on their own efforts and less on the assistance of hired labour, the rate of progress would be faster."

AGRICULTURAL SECTION

DRAINAGE WORKS IN BENGAL.

No important new drainage or irrigation projects, says the *Pioneer*, were undertaken in the province of Bengal last year. The whole of the area of nearly 300 square miles drained by the Magrahat drainage scheme in the 24-Parganas has been brought under cultivation and although the year was one of exceptional rainfall the sluices worked well, and the crops did not suffer except on some low-lying lands. In connection with embankments, the main work done was to close the breaches caused by the floods in the Burdwan Division. The question of adopting remedial measures for lessening the damage by floods in the Burdwan, Hooghly, Howrah, and Midnapur districts is under the consideration of the Public Works Department. A proposal has been approved by Government for raising the low portions of certain embankments on the right bank of the Ajai river.

TREES DIGEST FOOD BEFORE EATING IT.

If proper nourishment be placed about its roots, observes the *Wealth of India*, a tree will absorb this food and grow rapidly and strongly. But how the tree feeds is somewhat more difficult to explain. In all probability the tree digests its food first and consumes it afterwards. Certain it is that the average tree has no means of consuming food as a whole, as members of the animal kingdom absorb it. It is well known that the larvae of certain insects digest their food first and consume it afterwards. Observation would indicate that this is exactly what the tree does. The tiny rootlets act on the substances in the earth, dissolving and breaking them up so that they can be absorbed through the root pores. In order so to be taken up, the chemicals must be in liquid form and devoid of all waste. The end of each root is armed with a horny substance with which it can burrow through the hard soil in search of food. When food is found it is dissolved into a liquid and absorbed by the root fibres. From the root the food is carried by the sap to all parts of the tree.

RISE IN PRICE OF WHEAT.

The following press *communiqué* is issued:—

On 28th of December last in view of the rise in price of wheat in Indian markets the Government of India restricted to fixed quantity the amount of wheat and wheat flour which might be exported from India up to the end of March 1915. In spite of this restriction prices have continued to rise and the Government of India have now decided that all private export of wheat and wheat flour shall be prohibited with effect from the date of expiry of the present restriction on 31st March up to 31st December 1915. The sole object of the Government of India in effecting this prohibition is to control local prices which would otherwise rise in sympathy with prices all over the world and produce distress in India in spite of the abundant harvest. It is not however the intention of the Government, especially during the year when so many of the crops produced in India have lost their market and when there is reason to believe that the wheat crop is likely to be largely in excess of the country's requirements, to disappoint legitimate expectations of Indian cultivators by continuing to prevent all export beyond the point when it has been clearly established that there is surplus available and above the needs of the country and so long as prices can be successfully controlled. The necessary arrangements are therefore under consideration to permit of export of any available surplus through ordinary channels of trade and at usual season but subject to strictest supervision and control by Government. These arrangements will be a matter for future announcements.

CATTLE BREEDING IN MADRAS.

The Hon. Mr. A. G. Cardew, I.C.S., who presided at the prize distribution of the Ongole Cattle Show, in his speech alluded to the importance that the Government attached to cattle-breeding in the Madras Presidency, in proof of which they are appointing a Special Deputy Director of Cattle-breeding and Stock-raising in the Agricultural Department.

FOREST PRESERVATION.

In the villages, observes the *Bombay Chronicle*, troubles between the villagers and the forest officials are a thing of every-day occurrence. It cannot be otherwise. It is the duty of the forest officials to look to the preservation of the forest area under their charge, whereas the villagers are concerned with their own advantages, so the clash is not uncommon. With a view to avoiding this constant friction, the Government of Mysore have hit upon the plan of appointing the villagers keepers of the forests near each village. The Mysore forests are specially valuable to the Government as they contain sandalwood of great value. With the co-operation of the villagers the Government should feel safe from forest fires, etc. In 1913 the Mysore Government appointed a Committee to enquire and decide upon the best measures for the management of forests in co-operation with the villagers. It is now decided that a village forest will consist of not less than 200 acres, which may be allotted to it by the Government, and the management will be in the hands of the Patel with a Panchayat of not more than seven members. They will be responsible for granting permits for taking wood and giving grazing licenses, the latter being entirely free. They will have to look after the forests, keep accounts, introduce improvements in the way of growing fodder and grass, and thus make the forest a useful aid to the village. All the income from this forest area will go to form a village forest fund to be deposited in the name of the Panchayat in the Savings Bank. The advantage of this scheme is that every villager will henceforth take a special interest in the proper preservation of the forest, of which he is a part owner as it will be to his advantage to do so. Some such scheme, concludes the *Bombay journal*, might well be introduced in British India both for the benefit of the Government and public and for the preservation of the forests.

COTTON CROP, 1914-15, IN MADRAS.

The actual area sown with cotton in the Madras Presidency is 2,355,500 acres, which is 13 per cent. less than last year, but is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. above the average of the actuals of the last five years. The area is slightly in deficit in all tracts but chiefly in "Salems," where the season at sowing time was not favourable. In Tinnevely which is always the area last sown in Madras there were indications at first that the fall in prices of cotton might result in restricted

sowings, but especially in the south the rain was so heavy that cumbu failed and late cotton was sown in its place. Sowings continued here even till the end of December and the final result is that the area sown is very little below the normal. The estimated outturn in the Presidency is 320,365 bales of 400lb. each, which exceeds the reported estimated outturn according to the final accounts of last year. There is however reason to believe that the reported outturn on the final season and crop report figures for last year was too low. Reports show that the outturn of "Cocanadas" will be up to a normal crop and those of "Northerns" in Kurnool nearly so. The area under "Westerns" in Belary and Anantpur has however suffered from prolonged drought and the outturn there will be from 40 per cent. to 50 per cent. in deficit of a normal crop. In "Salems" the outturn in the area sown is expected to be better than last year. In "Tinnevellies" sowings were so late that it is more than usually dangerous to attempt any prophecy, but the crops though sown late have on the whole made good progress; and it would seem reasonable to expect there a crop of good quality, but in the extreme south with outturn below the average. The Native States of Banganapalle and Pudukottai report an area of 28,300 acres with an estimated outturn of 3,277 bales, bringing the gross total of the Presidency up to 323,642 bales of 400lbs. each.

STAPLE CROPS IN INDIA.

The following table gives the yield of the staple crops in India during the years 1912-13 and 1913-14 and the average percentage exported in the last five years ending 1913-14:—

Crops.	1912-13.	1913-14.	Average per centage exported in last 5 years.
Wheat tons	9,853,000	8,427,000	15
Rice „	28484000	28167000	9
Sugar (cane), „	2,583,600	2,262,600	0.5
Linseed „	538,600	322,200	77
Rape and Mustard „	1,234,800	1,042,900	23
Sensamum „	472,400	407,900	25
Groundnut „	669,000	731,900	36
Cotton bales	4,610,000	5,201,000	55
Jute „	9,842,800	8,751,000	50
Indigo cwts.	39,100	27,100	50

Literary.

THE CLAIMS OF CULTURE.

Viscount Harberton writes a challenging article in a recent number of the *English Review* and damns the "arrogance of culture" with scant courtesy. Here is his opening challenge :

Is there any use or merit of any kind in culture? Is a man who knows a Botticelli from a Sassoferrato without a catalogue in any way superior to a man who knows a Rolls-Royce from a Mercédès as it passes without stopping it, and who is on nodding terms with a good deal of the machinery? Is there any real reason why intellectual culture should be considered preferable to proficiency in golf, bridge, mechanics, fishing, or anything else? And, if so, why so? Yet people who attend antiquated plays, such as Shakespeare's and patronise classical concerts, such as those at the Bechstein Hall, and who simply love any old painting by any old master, seem, for no very obvious reason, to be convinced that their whole nature must therewith breathe an ambrosial excellence and shed around them an atmosphere of incomparable charm.

Matthew Arnold, in the *Golden Treasury Series*, is quoted as saying that the greatness of a country is not to be measured by its wealth, but by its soul. He continues: "The use of culture is that it helps us, by means of its spiritual standard of perfection, to regard wealth as but machinery." This is one of the golden coins in the book of golden thoughts in the *Golden Treasury Series*. The inference is that, should a man specialise in culture, or add culture to his vocation, the results would be productive of soul-wealth.

WAR AND THE BOOK TRADE.

Somehow, writes James Milne in the *Book Monthly*, the cheap reprint seems to have suffered a little on account of the war, perhaps because many of the intelligent, not over-rich men who buy it have gone fighting. The reprint reader of good physique would certainly be an admirable recruit for Kitchener's new army, if only for the reason that his devotion to the reprint is evidence of his intelligence. At the other end of the string there has been a slump in expensive books, and the reason for that is sufficiently obvious. The rich folk who usually buy them as furniture have been giving the money to war charities, or perhaps they have not had it to give, and while the book trade has suffered from this, it cannot

be said that literature has suffered. The war has given us a burst of poetry, some of it new and of very varying quality; most of it old, in the form of anthologies. These have been almost too numerous to mention, and if you went into a book-seller's shop and asked for one, the poor man would probably be able to offer you a dozen. You might then, unless you had more than a passing acquaintance with martial verse, be driven to the expedient of the woman novel-reader who chooses her stories according to the covers. Red is her favourite colour in fiction.

THE CHIMES OF TERMONDE.

Among the numerous war poems there is one by Grace Hazard Coupling in the *Atlantic Review* which breathes the very spirit of regret and a haunting melancholy. The broken heart of the bells is echoed in these lines :—

The grouping spires have lost the sky,
That reach from Termonde town :
There are no bells to travel by,
The minster chimes are down.

It's forth we must, alone, alone,
And try to find the way ;
The bells that we have always known,
War broke their hearts to-day.

They used to call the morning
Along the gilded street,
And then their rhymes were laughter,
And all their notes were sweet.

I heard them stumble down the air
Like Seraphim betrayed ;
God must have heard their broken prayer
That made my soul afraid.

The Termonde bells are gone, are gone,
And what is left to say ?
It's forth we must, by bitter dawn,
To try to find the way.

They used to call the children
To go to sleep at night ;
And then their songs were tender
And drowsy with delight.

The wind will look for them in vain
Within the empty tower.

They used to ring at evening
To help the people pray,
Who wander now bewildered
And cannot find the way.

Educational.

SIR P. M. MEHTA AS VICE-CHANCELLOR.

In congratulating Sir Pherozechah Mehta in his elevation to the Vice-Chancellorship of the Bombay University, the *Times of India* writes:—"Sir Pherozechah Mehta has taken a leading part in the life of the University for very many years, and has always stood up in defence of the rights and privileges of that institution. In doing so, he has been a leader in most of the contentious discussions of the past. He has never attempted to disguise his opinions, and for many years he has been looked upon as the accepted champion of a big party on the Senate. With many men this would have been a serious obstacle in the way of a successful career as a Vice-Chancellor, but we do not think it will be so in the case of Sir Pherozechah. He will be the guardian of the University against any attack from within, and we shall be sorry for anybody who dares to under-rate the strength of the University or tries to hold it in contempt whilst he is in office. But in presiding over the deliberations of the Senate we believe that Sir Pherozechah will be rigid in his impartiality and, that being so, his influence for good should be enormous. We hope that at this age he will make no effort to cope with the mass of administrative duties that awaits him, and trust that he will see at once the need for the decentralisation of power. Sir John Heaton has laid down the lines on which the University should progress, it is for Sir Pherozechah Mehta to evolve the administrative system by which these reforms can be carried out."

PROFESSOR GEDDES ON THE VERNACULARS.

The following opinion is furnished to the Joint Secretary to the Council of Indian Education, Madras, by Professor Patrick Geddes on the subject of "Vernaculars being employed as the media of instruction in non-language subjects:—"

"All I can say is, that the whole trend of my teaching of civics and town-planning—with its insistence on the value and necessity of growing each place upon its own roots, and maintaining its original character (while not excluding the introduction of good grafts from elsewhere)—is quite in sympathy with your theme of education in vernaculars."

"The most I can do is to offer you my own experience in the matter. I am the son of a Gaelic-speaking Highlander, who with the discouragement common to his generation, did not teach his language to us, his children, nor encourage us any way to learn. Now, however, I see my own children, all of them, learning Gaelic, and this without any active encouragement from me, but simply as part of that general revival of the old languages which is also so conspicuous in Ireland and Wales."

"The gain to them is plain, and is in two directions—on one side that of folk-sympathy and on the other of culture in its more narrow and academic sense. Thus all of them are now familiar with Gaelic music and song, and one of my sons will probably be able to use Gaelic as one of the subjects of his Arts degree; yet nobody will be so absurd to suppose that their use of English is in any way diminished, any more than it has been by learning French, for instance. Each and every language has its own unique world, ranging from folk-feeling to literature; and to lose any one of these languages is a loss of civilisation—which only the futilitarian economist (to whom English is mere business English, or, still worse, examination English) can for a moment desire."

EDUCATION IN BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Referring to the criticism of the Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Committee, that special grants for education should be devoted to multiply the number of schools rather than improve them, the Government says that the objection is based on imperfect realisation of the extremely low standard of education obtaining in many of the existing schools. The Government welcomes the recommendation of the Committee, which will stop the practice of one teacher teaching all the four classes.

The District Boards will be relieved of the work of maintaining Middle English Schools which will henceforth be financed by Government and they will concern themselves exclusively with the promotion of vernacular education. The Government fully realise the value of increasing and improving the Middle English Schools, which will also remove the congestion in the lower classes of the High English Schools. The student would be better educated and looked after in Middle English Schools than in High English Schools, the classes of which are overcrowded.

Legal.

CHIEF COURT FOR CENTRAL PROVINCES.

Mr. Dadabhoy moved in the Imperial Council at Delhi that the Court of the Judicial Commissioner of Central Provinces be replaced by a Chief Court consisting of five Judges or more. He said that the Resolution affected the judicial machinery of the Central Provinces and Berar, but it had an indirect and considerable influence upon the goodwill and contentment of India as a whole. The Imperial administration of justice was the bedrock of the British Indian administration. After giving a statistical account of the population and progress in education in the Central Provinces, the speaker said it would be a wonder if the all-round progress had not expanded their political and administrative horizon. It could be well imagined that such a progressive population would demand better and more up-to-date arrangements for the administration of the Province, and that the existing administrative machinery failed to satisfy them. Continuing his remarks, the speaker said the people wanted the whole judiciary to be placed on a sounder and more independent footing and an improved Court of financial appeal. The main point to be borne in mind was that not only should justice as between man and man be dispensed impartially and with due regard to law and precedent, but that the public should feel justice was so dispensed. Judging by that test, the Judicial Commissioners Court fell below that ideal. Not that the Judges were wanting in the performance of their arduous routine work, but the whole constitution was old and antiquated and opposed to progressive ideas, and did not ensure to the Court that measure of freedom from executive control, which was essential for thorough judicial independence.

Mr. Dadabhoy reviewed the judicial machinery of the three Chief Commissioners of the Central Provinces, North-West Frontier Province, and Assam, and claimed that the progressive population of the Central Provinces demanded a more up-to-date arrangement than that now existing. He said that the Province has now got a Legislative Council and he urged the creation of a Chief Court with a fixed minimum of Lawyer Judges, and a Barrister as the Chief Judge. The speaker again took up half an hour, and after Sir G. M. Chitnavis had supported him, Sir Reginald Craddock in his reply doubted whether the Court would be greatly improved by the proposed

changes. He recognised that each Province wished its status to grow equally with that of the other Provinces, but he pointed out that there had, in recent years, been six new Acts passed in the Council, developing the arrangements for justice in the Central Provinces, and there were shortly expected to be four Judges in the Court of the Judicial Commissioner.

THE C. I. D. IN BENGAL.

Regarding the recent search of the *Bengalee* office by the Police, the *Amrita Bazar Patrika* writes :—

The result of thus giving loose reins to the powers and activities of the Police and C. I. D., is that not merely so-called suspects but non-suspects also—nay even some of the most prominent and respectable Indians, are not immune from the tender attentions of the former. Fancy the *Bengalee* office of the Hon'ble Babu Surendra Nath Banerjee, we mean the iron safe in that office was searched in the presence of our esteemed brother by Mr. Lowman, of the C. I. D., who of course discovered only a horse's egg therein. Did the C. I. D. men expect that Babu Surendra Nath or his men had kept some revolver, or stolen property or incriminating papers hidden in the iron safe? Did they take him for an accomplice of the anarchists or the dacoits? The carriage of the Hon'ble Roy Radha Charan Pal was also searched. But here is a still more startling incident. The Hon'ble Nawab Shamsul Huda was also ordered by the Police to stop his motor car, which was raided and searched, though we fancy, he protested as loudly as he could that he was no anarchist at all but only a member of the Executive Council of Bengal Government in proof of which he no doubt pointed to his liveried peons who had accompanied him. It is gratifying to learn that the C. I. D. officers are very impartial—they make no distinction between big men and small, when they are on their "suspect-hunting" expedition. Now that they have dealt with a member of the Executive Council as well as with a member of the Supreme as well as of the Local Councils so successfully, their next achievement should be to stop and search the car of His Excellency the Governor.

Medical.

PLAGUE IN THE PUNJAB.

The plague mortality in the Punjab in recent weeks offers terrible figures. The actual figures for one week are 6,642 seizures and 5,285 deaths. The Press *communiqué* lately issued by the Punjab Government shows that vigorous efforts have been put forth to combat the epidemic. Government rightly observes that the recrudescence this year is serious. It is more serious than that of 1910 or 1911 when 169,867 and 198,669 lives were sacrificed. In 1911, the cases and deaths of February were only 15,099 and 13,496 respectively. But this year, observes a Punjab contemporary, for the first two weeks of the month we have 12,363 cases and 9,777 deaths. The worst months in 1911 were April and May when cases and deaths were more than 75,000 and 65,000. People ought to fully avail themselves of the assistance offered by Government and reduce the suffering to the minimum.

TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS CASES.

The Government of Bombay has issued a resolution regarding the provision of hospital accommodation in the presidency for treatment of tuberculosis cases in the Bombay City. It is considered advisable that each of the large Indian hospitals should have attached to it special tuberculosis wards. Establishment of dispensaries at the principal towns in the presidency is also advocated and that special instructions on the subject of tuberculosis should be given in schools. Dispensaries should be, if possible, financed and controlled by local municipalities but where a municipality was unable to bear the entire expense of the dispensary grant-in-aid might be given towards the recurring expenditure in addition to any initial grant it might be decided to allot.

DR. JIVRAJ N. MEHTA. ☞

Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta's achievement in taking the first place in the last M. D. examination of the University of London has now been followed up by his attainment of the M. R. C. P. of London. This examination, like that of F. R. C. S., has no list of honours or prizes, but is a very high distinction. Dr. Mehta was one of the three successful candidates out of six competitors; and he has been formally admitted in the presence of leading Fellows of the College.

BACTERIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF WATER.

In a recent number of the *Indian Journal of Medical Research* we find a valuable paper by Mr. V. Govinda Raju, B.A., Bacteriological Assistant to the Sanitary Commissioner, Bengal, on the effect of the addition of common salt to samples of water for bacteriological analysis. Mr. Govinda Raju has conducted a series of fourteen experiments to test the effect of salts on the organisms in water and has set forth his conclusions briefly. He says:—

"The experiments show that a solution containing sodium chloride between 4 per cent. and 5 per cent. prevents rapid multiplication of bacteria in water. Any excess over 5 per cent. causes considerable reduction in their number. It does not seem possible to find a strength of salt solution which will keep constant the total bacterial count. Therefore this method of preserving samples cannot be depended upon so far as the total count goes. In the case of faecal bacteria a salt of over 2 per cent. causes a reduction in the number of faecal bacteria in 24 hours, and a solution below 2 per cent. cannot be depended upon to keep the number of faecal bacteria constant. The addition of salt for the purpose of preserving waters for bacteriological analysis appears to be quite unreliable."

THE PROVISION FOR SANITATION.

The Hon'ble Mr. Dadabhai said in a recent meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council that the next year's provision for medical expenditure was less than the Budget provision of the current year by £395,000, and was less than the revised estimate by £186,000. A heavy reduction in the allotment for sanitation had much to do with it. From the Secretary's memorandum it was found that a non-recurring grant of Rs. 15.15 lakhs had been made in aid of sanitation and medical expenditure out of the Imperial revenues as against Rs. 106.88 lakhs in 1913-14 and Rs. 41.36 lakhs in 1914-15, leaving an important balance of Rs. 95,11,000. This could not be satisfactory.

The speaker asked what was the grant of Rs. 15 lakhs to the whole of India? How many schemes of sanitary improvements could it finance? Mr. Dadabhai said that, out of the total allotment of £18,000,000 for capital outlay on railways, Rs. 60 lakhs be provided for the construction of new lines made up, and the speaker remained unconvinced both about the urgency and the expediency of those allotments.

Science.

THE COPPER SHORTAGE IN GERMANY.

Dr. Ernst Noah asserts in the columns of the *metal bourse* that 100,000 tons of copper per annum are needed in time of war, of which only 25,000 tons can be produced in Germany. The rest must be procured from the stocks already in the country. Lest this should seem alarming, Dr. Noah goes on to say that in the last five years at least 200,000 tons more copper was imported than exported, and that therefore there will be no difficulty in obtaining the amounts considered necessary. He recommends that the depots of the railways and of the army and navy should first of all be thoroughly inspected, and lays stress on the value of spent ammunition. After making the best use of these he would requisition all the metal to be found in the districts abroad occupied by Germans, then the various domestic apparatus, and finally, the overhead wires of the electric lines which are not running in Belgium as well as in Germany. All that he thinks, ought to suffice for some time.

COMPARATIVE STRENGTH IN AIRCRAFT.

According to a statement recently made by Captain Mark L. Bristol, of the United States Navy, the American naval air service now comprises twelve aeroplanes, sixteen qualified pilots and fifty trained men as mechanics. He expressed the opinion that for sea work, fifty aeroplanes should be built for every sixteen battleships, with another fifty air machines in reserve, the number being based upon the efficient examination at nightfall of a circle with a radius of 300 miles drawn around the battle fleet. Captain Bristol said that at the beginning of the war the air strength of the principal Powers concerned was as follows:—Great Britain, 9 dirigibles and 400 aeroplanes; France, 22 dirigibles and 1,400 aeroplanes; Russia, 18 dirigibles and 800 aeroplanes; Belgium, 2 dirigibles and 100 aeroplanes; and Serbia, 60 aeroplanes. The corresponding strength of the enemy is given thus: Germany, 40 dirigibles and 1,000 aeroplanes; and Austria-Hungary, 8 dirigibles and 400 aeroplanes. These figures can necessarily be no more than approximate; but assuming them to be correct, the Allies must now have an even greater superiority in aircraft as the German losses in dirigibles and aeroplanes have been particularly heavy.

REMOVING INK STAINS.

Ink stains present a difficulty to the garment dyer mainly because such a variety of inks are now in common use. The spot may be a logwood ink or an iron-tanning ink, or, again, a coal-tar colour. The old inks made from iron and tanning are removed by the process used for rust stains. For the logwood inks methods similar to those used for fruit stains must be followed. The aniline inks will usually be found to be capable of removal by the hydrosulphites now on the market under various names. The following recipes have recently been given by *Le Moniteur de la Teinture* which we reproduce from a contemporary:—

Wash with a solution of protochloride of tin (tin salt), acidulated with hydrochloric acid. The tin salt should be bought only in sufficient quantities for use, and the mixture should be prepared immediately before employment.

Rub with a brush or a pad impregnated with an aqueous concentrated solution of chloride of zinc, then wash thoroughly in water.

Wash with a lukewarm aqueous solution of salt of sorrel, then very thoroughly in water. Instead of using the solution the spot may be moistened and the salt sprinkled over in powder, then rubbed.

Wash with a lukewarm concentrated solution of perborate of soda, or sprinkle a little of the perborate over the spot, first moistening the place with a little water.

For spots of ink on silk the best way is to steep the spotted part in turpentine. When it has remained in the turpentine a little time the ink should be easily removed by rubbing.

STOLEN PLANS OF SUBMARINES.

"The German submarines now being used against British merchant-ships, says the *Matin*, are made after plans by the celebrated American designer, Simon Lake, of Bridgeport, which were stolen from him by Krupps. The plans were submitted to Krupps, whose directors gave their word of honour to divulge nothing. Eventually they entered into engagements on behalf of the Emperor, whereby the designer was to receive £600,000. As he could get neither his money nor his plans back he expostulated and was told that the patenting of anything concerning war was illegal in Germany, and that he therefore had no claim. Mr. Lake has since seen several German submarines, and is convinced that they are built from the plans he confided to Krupps."

Personal.

SIR ARTHUR M'MAHON.

It is a truism to say that the hour brings forth the man. In Colonel Sir Arthur Henry M'Mahon's case this is particularly true. Sir Henry M'Mahon was born in 1862 and was the eldest son of Lt.-Gen. C. A. M'Mahon, an Irishman of good family. Sir Henry was educated in the Haileybury Royal Military College and Sandhurst. He joined the British Army in 1883, the Indian Staff Corps in 1885 and joined the Punjab Frontier Force. In 1887 he was placed on the Punjab Commission and in 1890 the Indian Political Department. Among other important missions he accompanied the Durand Commission to Kabul as Political Officer in 1893 and had a great deal of work to do in connection with frontier surveys in Baluchistan, etc. When His Majesty the Amir of Kabul visited India in 1907 Sir Henry M'Mahon was appointed Chief Officer in charge of the visit. He was created an Afghan Sirdar of the first-class in 1907, and Agent to the Governor-General and was Chief Commissioner of Baluchistan from 1905 to 1911 and was finally appointed Master of Ceremonies to His Majesty the King during the royal visit to Delhi.

Sir Henry has been nearly all his official life in touch with Mohammedans, with Mohammedan thoughts and sentiment, Mohammedan customs and habits, and by his translation to Egypt as High Commissioner he will be in a more or less familiar environment.

The *Times* commenting on Sir Henry M' Mahon's appointment said: "There were obvious reasons why this officer (the High Commissioner) should not be chosen from the Egyptian service and the appointment in no way reflects upon the several able Englishmen in Egypt who might otherwise have been brought within the field of selection. Sir Henry M' Mahon has filled many important posts in India and is endowed with great capacity, extreme tact and a willingness to accept responsibility fearlessly, which has often been demonstrated in past years. We think he will be found not unworthy to follow in the footsteps of Lord Cromer and Lord Kitchener."

Sir Henry has said that he was deeply interested in all questions relating to Islam and that Egypt had always had a deep fascination for him. Sir Henry speaks Hindustani and is acquainted with the written characters of Arabic.

SIRDAR DALJIT SINGH.

Sirdar Daljit, Singh, C.S.I., who has been appointed to succeed Sir K. G. Gupta on the Secretary of State's Council, belongs to the Ahluwalia family of Kapurthala State and is the second son of Sirdar Bikrama Singh, the grand uncle of the present Maharaja of Kapurthala. His father lived in Jalandhar for many years and was known as one of the leading gentlemen of the Punjab. Kindly in bearing and of unbounded charity and hospitality, always forward in loyal offers of service to Government, he had received the title of Sirdar Bahadur in 1858 for service rendered in the Mutiny. His advice was constantly sought by officials on matters affecting administration, while among his own people he was the leader of every religious and social movement which had for its object the real good of his native land. The Sirdar's eldest son, Pratap Singh, had a long career of usefulness and was a Member of the Punjab Legislative Council, and an Additional Member of the Imperial Legislative Council. On Pratap Singh's death, Sirdar Daljit Singh turned his thoughts towards a public career and was elected to the Imperial Legislative Council, where he made an excellent impression. He is an active member of the Punjab Chiefs Association and has long been known as an earnest student of Sikh theology. His selection for the Secretary of State's Council will be peculiarly gratifying to the whole Sikh community, and he will bring to the discharge of his duties a clear judgment and evenly balanced mind. The Sirdar will proceed to England in April to take up his appointment.—*Pioneer*.

THE HON. MR. KELKAR.

The Servants of India Society has received a great accession of strength by the Hon. Mr. Kelkar joining the band of devoted workers. The *Hitavada* of Nagpur announces: "We have Mr. Kelkar's permission to announce that it is only the engagements that he has already entered into that prevent his joining the Society immediately and taking its vows. Till November 1916 therefore Mr. Kelkar will take up the work of the Society in the Province as an Associate under clause 24 of its constitution and he will by the end of the next year formally enroll as a member of the Servants of India Society." Mr. Kelkar is a veteran worker within the limits of his own opportunities and we have no doubt that the Society will be the better for this acquisition.

Political.

THE FUTURE GOVERNMENT OF EGYPT.

The following from the "Official Journal" dated the 19th December 1914, which is the text of the letter of the British Agent to the New Sultan shows clearly the policy that will henceforward be followed in Egypt:—

"Of the rights thus accruing to His Majesty, no less than of those exercised in Egypt during the last thirty years of reform, His Majesty's Government regard themselves as trustees for the inhabitants of Egypt. And His Majesty's Government have decided that Great Britain can best fulfil the responsibilities she has incurred towards Egypt by the formal declaration of a British Protectorate and by the government of the country under such Protectorate by a Prince of the Khedivial Family.

"I am instructed by His Majesty's Government to inform Your Highness that by reason of your age and experience, you have been chosen as the Prince of the Family of Mahomed Ali most worthy to occupy the Khedivial position with the title and style of Sultan of Egypt; and in inviting Your Highness to accept the responsibilities of your high office, I am to give you the formal assurance that Great Britain accepts the fullest responsibility for the defence of the territories under Your Highness against all aggression whencesoever coming; and His Majesty's Government authorise me to declare that after the establishment of the British Protectorate now announced all Egyptian subjects, wherever they may be, will be entitled to receive the protection of His Majesty's Government.

"With the Ottoman suzerainty there will disappear the restrictions heretofore placed by the Ottoman *firman*s upon the numbers and organisation of Your Highness's army and upon the grant by Your Highness of honorific distinctions.

"As regards foreign relations, His Majesty's Government deem it most consistent with the new responsibilities assumed by Great Britain that the relations between Your Highness's Government and the Representatives of Foreign Powers should henceforth be conducted through His Majesty's representative in Cairo.

"His Majesty's Government have repeatedly placed on record that the system of treaties known as the Capitulations, by which Your Highness's Government is bound, are no longer in harmony with the development of the country; but

in the opinion of His Majesty's Government the revision of those treaties may most conveniently be postponed until the end of the present war.

"In the field of internal administration I am to remind Your Highness that, in consonance with the traditions of British policy, it has been the aim of His Majesty's Government, while working through and in the closest association with the constituted Egyptian authorities, to secure individual liberty, to promote the spread of education, to further the development of the natural resources of the country and in such measure as the degree of enlightenment of public opinion may permit, to associate the governed in the task of Government. Not only is it the intention of His Majesty's Government to remain faithful to such policy, but they are convinced that the clearer definition of Great Britain's position in the country will accelerate progress towards self-government.

"The religious convictions of Egyptian subjects will be scrupulously respected as are those of His Majesty's own subjects, whatever their creed. Nor need I affirm to Your Highness that in declaring Egypt free from any duty of obedience to those who have usurped political power at Constantinople, His Majesty's Government are animated by no hostility towards the Kaliphate. The past history of Egypt shows indeed that the loyalty of Egyptian Mahomedans towards the Kaliphate is independent of any political bond between Egypt and Constantinople.

"The strengthening and progress of Mahomedan institutions in Egypt is naturally a matter in which His Majesty's Government take a deep interest and with which Your Highness will be specially concerned, and in carrying out such reforms as may be considered necessary, Your Highness may count upon the sympathetic support of His Majesty's Government.

"I am to add that His Majesty's Government rely with confidence upon the loyalty, the good sense and self-restraint of Egyptian subjects to facilitate the task of the General Officer Commanding His Majesty's Forces, who is entrusted with the maintenance of internal order and with the prevention of the rendering of aid to the enemy."

General.

RUSSIA'S TEMPERANCE REFORM.

Russia has made a noble stand in prohibiting the manufacture and sale of the famous Vodka, the Russian popular drink. The exit of this beverage is a loss of £100,000,000 to the revenue of the State, which it has cheerfully relinquished. The amount of spirits consumed by the people during 1913 was 2,835,000,000 gallons. The effect of the prohibition is, that in one month, drunken crimes dropped from 1,660 to 400. The peoples are now better dressed, industrious, more sensible, and are with a wider outlook. Sights such as carrying the last sack of flour and the last dozen eggs for drink are no more seen. Men are seen going about in company of their wives, which was never witnessed before; and discussing with them what to do with the superfluous money which is on hand. Every one without any exception wishes that the sale of the drink may never be renewed. The money earned by artisans goes now towards the extension of their business. There are no brawls in the streets, nor scandals in the homes. Tramps are no longer seen. Everybody, we are told, is dressed in good clothes and in decent boots. At marriages, instead of spending £12 on drink they spend only 4s. on cakes, and it is done. Now there is no noise, no filthy language, no thieving and no nothing. Prisons are becoming bare, courts becoming idle, and doctors have no patients. Prayers are ascending that no drink shops will be re-opened. The material condition of the peasantry is improving. Savings of £800,000 or 900,000 per province are common, each family makes a saving of 50 shillings. To sum up "temperance has done a great piece of work. It has introduced peace and tranquility into public life, brought joy into the families, has raised the material condition of the people and has rendered them purer, better and more moral."

INDIAN ART EXHIBITION.

An interesting exhibition of Indian paintings and craft work was opened at Lahore Museum on the 1st instant by the Lieutenant-Governor. The new Calcutta school, founded by Mr. Tagore, is well represented, and there are examples of work of Punjab artists. At the opening ceremony Mr. H. L. Heath, Principal of the School of Art, explained the objects with which the exhibition was held. The Lieutenant-Governor, in declaring it open, said they were all indebted

to Bengal artists who had loaned them the fine examples they saw on the walls of their art. Evidence of the extraordinary revival in this branch of Indian art was, if he might put it so, staring them in the face from the walls around them. They in the Punjab had a worthy example before them and he thought they would all agree that in the short time at their disposal Punjab artists had done remarkably well. In time he hoped a provincial school of painters would not only successfully imitate the Bengal school but would strike out on an individual line of their own.

VILLAGE PLANNING IN MADRAS.

Happily the advent of Prof. Goddes has borne fruit. An important order on village planning has been issued by Government of Madras. It deals with the rudiments of science as applied to the areas which are likely in the next fifty years or so to develop into towns or be absorbed in the existing towns. Government recognise that most of the difficulties now experienced by the Municipalities could have been avoided if in past some thought had been given to future and its probable requirements. They, therefore, lay down certain sound principles. The order deals with the choice of healthy sites, laying out of roads and marking out and keeping available of routes along which roads of future will run. When the village or small town develops drainage and so forth and the local body concerned lacks means, the Government are prepared to make loans. Precautions are suggested against exploitation by speculators in land.

THE CAPITAL OF SEN KINGS.

Babu Nagandra Nath Vasu, Prachyavidyamaharnana, Vice-President of the Rarh Research Society, has recently been touring in the neighbourhood of Katwa, and has made some important discoveries. Among other discoveries Mr. Vasu has identified Vikrampur, the reputed seat of the Sen Kings, with Vikrampur near Agra dwip (in Western Bengal), a few miles from Devagram mentioned in the commentary of Ramcharita. It is stated that Mr. Vasu has derived proofs as to the accuracy of his identification from the copper-plate inscription discovered in Sitalhati and other important historical references.

The identification of Vikrampur in Western Bengal with the old capital of that Sen kings will unsettle a long-cherished tradition that the Vikrampur on Eastern Bengal was the favoured seat of Vallal Sen and his predecessors,



MR. M. K. GANDHI



MR. AND MRS. GANDHI.

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INDIA, THE WAR AND THE ARMY BY SIR VALENTINE CHIROL.

ONE of the most striking results of the war at home is the change of democratic opinion concerning the army and all that it connotes. The last mail brought out a remarkable letter which had just appeared in a London paper from Mr. James Sexton, one of the most influential labour leaders in England. He states that he had been a consistent and convinced opponent of a big navy as well as of any form of obligatory service in the army and that he had been content to put his trust in disarmament and arbitration. I presume that twelve months ago he would have regarded Bedlam or any other Lunatic Asylum as the proper place of residence for those who like myself, or to mention a far higher authority—the present Viceroy had for years past believed William II. to be working up to the present war for world-dominion as surely and as methodically as Bismarck had worked up half a century ago to the war between Prussia and Austria for domination in Germany and then to the war between Germany and France for domination in Europe.

It is, as Mr. Sexton himself puts it, “somewhat of a revolution” to find him and his friends even considering the merits or the necessity of military service. It is still more of a revolution that consideration of the question should have led such men to admit publicly that the opinions they had so strongly held have now been tried by the supreme test of a great national emergency and found utterly wanting. Had the duty of military service been recognised in time by the nation at large, we should not now, Mr. Sexton admits, be still on the Iser or the Aisne, but across the Rhine and well on the road to Berlin. Nor is this “revolutionary” change confined to the principle of military service. Hitherto it was the fashion in democratic circles to regard the army

as an institution apart from and indeed almost inherently hostile to the “masses,” a close preserve for the “classes,” a bulwark of “reaction,” if not an actual menace to “the liberties of the people,” etc. All these shibboleths are being rapidly swept away. It is our fleets and our armies that have alone saved not only “the liberties of the people” but our national independence from destruction and in the splendid stand made by our troops in France against a long prepared scheme of overwhelming aggression, the only privilege of the “classes” has been to swell as never before the long drawn casualty lists from the battlefield. If democracy means the fusion of all classes of the community in a common sense of national duty, never has that meaning come so near to fulfilment as in the territorial and other new armies in which aristocrats and artisans, professors and peasants, capitalists and workmen stand to-day shoulder to shoulder waiting for “the day,” under no other compulsion than their own voluntary determination to do or die for their country. The victory which awaits them will be the crowning apotheosis of true democracy.

Conditions in India are necessarily very different, but during the few weeks I have spent here, this time, I have been glad to note many indications of a somewhat analogous change in the attitude of the educated classes towards the Indian Army. It has always seemed strange to me that, amongst Indians whose ideal is an united India, so little appreciation was shown of an institution which embodies in so large and effective a measure the conception of Indian unity. In the Indian army as nowhere else in India you find men of all races and creeds and castes and classes in this vast sub-continent brought into the closest community of thought and action—Brahmans and non-Brahmans, Hindus and

Mussulmans, Sikhs and Christians, Punjabis and Mahrattas, hill-men and low-landers. Their different idiosyncracies are as far as possible safeguarded and respected, but such distinctions as exist between them serve mainly to promote that generous emulation between different corps which stimulates every army in the world.

The educated classes in India have largely drawn their inspiration from a school of political thought in England which had undoubtedly been led by doctrinaire conceptions to ignore or to misconstrue the significance of the army in a democratic state. The revulsion of feeling which, as shown for example in Mr. Sexton's letter, is taking place at home under the impact of this great war, could not, I think, fail to exercise a far-reaching influence on educated opinion in India. The vast majority of educated Indians have thrown in their lot with the British Empire and have frankly recognised that the destinies of India are bound up as far as the human eye can reach into the future with the triumph of the British cause, whilst every patriotic Indian has been stirred by the achievements of the Indian army in the field to a new sense of legitimate national pride.

The last time I saw my friend Mr. Gokhale the day before he left England in the autumn, he said to me laughingly: "I'm not sure that the Indian army won't do more for us Indians than all the Royal Commissions in the world," and he went on in a more serious vein to expound the hopes which he placed in the association of Indian and British troops on the battlefields of Europe in this supreme struggle for the liberties of the world. "For," as he put it, "you Englishmen are great fighters and if, as I am confident, my fellow-countrymen prove themselves worthy of the confidence you have shown in them by bringing them to Europe and stand shoulder to shoulder with you in the hour of need that will, I believe, make a far stronger appeal to the imagin-

ation of the British nation as a whole than any arguments which I could use."

For my own part I believe also that, when the war is over, the Indian army will prove more than ever to be an invaluable link between India and England. Whilst its splendid services at a most critical juncture will have won for it a high measure of public esteem and gratitude, it will return to India itself with an enhanced appreciation of the value of British leadership and especially of the regimental officer who understands and knows his own men and—witness the appalling casualty lists—is faithful to them unto death. I have for a long time past held that, just as larger openings are being found for Indians in the civil services of their country, so also larger openings will have to be found for Indians who from heredity or from individual predilection prefer to seek a military career. This is one of the problems which the war will certainly have brought to maturity as part of the work of Imperial reconstruction to be carried out if the many new ties created by common services and common sacrifices during the war are to inure to the permanent consolidation of the Empire in times of peace. I trust, therefore, that whenever it comes up for solution the educated Indians who claim to represent and to guide public opinion, will approach it in the broad spirit which, I am sure, Mr. Gokhale would have brought to bear upon it. I need not ask to be forgiven for quoting him once more. He had been much impressed by the long processions of young men marching last autumn through the streets of London from the recruiting offices to the depôts of the new armies—impressed by their earnestness of purpose as much as by their fine physique. "That is the sort of thing," he remarked to me, "that invests military service with a new meaning. It is the gift of civic duty interpreted to meet a great national crisis." And this was the gift which in its various forms Mr. Gokhale most ardently desired for his countrymen.

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THE DANGER OF DRAWN WARS

BY PROF. H. P. FARRELL.



AT the time of writing—April 12—it may be taken as absolutely certain that the German offensive is at an end. In the west they will not advance another step. If in the terrible days of October and November they failed to pierce the allied line, notwithstanding all the advantages which numbers, long and careful preparation, splendid equipment, and a plentiful supply of all munitions gave them, how can they hope to do so now, when all these advantages are being steadily transferred to the Allies? Even the staunchest and most confident German soldier regards the position in the west only as a stalemate. Paris therefore is safe, and so is all of fair France that has escaped the terrible hand of the invader. Similarly England need have no fears—if she ever had any—of an invasion. If the German fleet declined to fight in the early days of the war when it was relatively stronger than it is to day, there is an ever increasing reason why it should now view the prospect of a battle with just as much disfavour. If it does come out and fight, the chances are overwhelmingly against it, but it is more than likely that the fleet will be kept intact as a valuable asset in the inevitable haggling which will precede the signing of the treaty of peace. The sinking of English merchant vessels by German submarines will doubtless continue. We may even hear of more aerial raids on the English coast, although since our sailors and airmen have given the enemy something to think about at Zeebrugge, these raids seem to have ceased. Nevertheless they may occur again. But these air-raids, and the so-called submarine blockade are not part of an organised offensive—or if they are, then it is the feeblest and most foolish offensive ever undertaken. Rather they are to be regarded as the spiteful and vicious blows of defeated and disappointed men.

Similarly on the eastern frontier the Germans have shot their bolt and it has failed of its mark. The last great effort against Warsaw from the north has proved fruitless. A portion of Russian territory has been occupied, but here, as in the west, it may be said “thus far and no further.”

As for the allies of the Germans, so far from taking the offensive, they are hard put to it to

maintain themselves against the attacks of the Allies. It is long since we heard of any attack by the Austrians against Servia. They are barely holding their own against the Russians in the Carpathians. The Turkish movement in the Caucasus has been decisively checked. The attack on Egypt was never anything but a futile demonstration. The head of the Persian Gulf is in British hands.

Similarly throughout the Empire—in South Africa, in Egypt, in India, the emissaries of the German government have done their worst. Trouble has certainly been stirred up, but it has been suppressed owing to the staunch loyalty of all parts of the Empire and the wise and prompt measures of the Imperial and other governments and no result has been achieved.

But it does not follow that because our enemies have reached the limit of their offensive, that we may breathe freely, and declare that all danger is at an end. On the contrary, never throughout the war has there been a juncture when it has been more necessary to set our shoulders resolutely to the wheel and to permit of no relaxation of our efforts until the task that confronts us has been completely achieved. We are opposed to an enemy who not only fights valiantly and efficiently in the field, but also insidiously and unscrupulously in diplomacy, and it is in this latter kind of warfare that we must now be on our guard.

If the German offensive has now come to an end it is equally certain that the forward movement of the Allies has not yet begun. Suppose the war were to come to an end now, what would be the position? The Germans hold Belgium—all but a few square miles—a considerable portion of the fairest and wealthiest districts in France, and eastern Poland. Opposed to this, the Allies hold Galicia and some of the less important German colonies. Not a single square mile of German territory is at present occupied by the Allies. Is not the balance immeasurably in favour of the Germans? What then? Well, it is the task of the Allies to throw the enemy back until he is at last driven to make a stand for the defence of the Fatherland, and then to carry on their offensive movement until the Germans themselves shall feel the horrors of the warfare wherewith they have

devastated their neighbours, and so at last shall be driven to sue for such terms of peace as the Allies shall be disposed to grant them. We are only now beginning to realise the magnitude of this task. There are two ways in which it may be accomplished. The first is to make a terrific onslaught on the German lines both east and west, and to drive the enemy back step by step by sheer hard fighting. This can be done, but the mind shrinks from contemplating the awful loss of life and bloodshed which such an attack entails. Shall we find our attack on the German trenches any easier than that the Germans themselves did when they attacked the British position, for instance, at Ypres? And it is to be remembered that the Germans have had ample time to prepare a series of entrenched positions behind their outlying defences, culminating in the grand series of fortifications behind the Rhine. All these positions can be carried. Probably when once the Germans have commenced their retrograde movement, and are in consequence dispirited, and it may be, demoralised, the successive attacks of the Allies will be easier of accomplishment than the first. Nevertheless the casualties have yet to run into many hundreds of thousands before the end is in sight, while the waste of money and munitions is appalling to contemplate. The Russians will find their task on the east no easier than that of their Allies on the west. Twice at least they have found the German network of strategic railways an insuperable bar to the invasion of Prussia. Nevertheless there are no obstacles to the invasion of Germany which cannot be overcome by numbers and determination, but the cost in men and material is great enough to terrify the weak-minded amongst us.

The second way in which the Germans may be brought to their knees is by the process of starvation brought about by a rigid blockade. This process is already in hand, and its effects are being keenly felt in Germany. It is slow but very sure. By this process Germany should be driven to surrender at the very latest by the Summer of 1916. At first sight this method seems less costly than the first one, but it is to be doubted whether the bloodshed will be very much less in a prolonged trench warfare than in a shorter but more vigorous offensive movement. Certainly the cost in money will be much greater. Mr. Asquith has stated that the war is costing England a million and a half sterling a day. That means that if it is carried on for a

year from now, England will have to find another 500 million sterling, and to this must be added the enormous losses resulting from the dislocation of trade and the cessation of industry. The ruin of Germany may be complete, but before the end has come, every one of us throughout the Empire will have felt the pinch, and Britain will have felt it keenly.

Whichever method may be adopted—and probably it will be a combination of the two, resulting in not so great a loss of life as that involved in an immediate and desperate onslaught on the German trenches, nor in such a monetary loss as would result from a prolonged blockade, yet nevertheless demanding great and terrible loss. I have tried to show that the sacrifice that will be demanded of us are such as to dismay the weak-hearted. This is Germany's opportunity. Seeing that she cannot obtain that dominion of the world, which she set out to obtain; seeing that the prolongation of the war means ruin to herself, she will doubtless try to work upon our selfish fears and to obtain the best terms that she can for herself by negotiation. She may offer to return to the *status quo ante*. She may even offer to allow those colonies which have been wrested from her to remain in the hands of the Allies. There is no doubt that there are people in the ranks of the latter, who, dismayed by the prospect of the sacrifices demanded by a prolongation of the war, would with avidity seize upon such terms, and should they be refused by the allied governments, would form the nucleus of a "Stop the war" party, which would become a great and ever-increasing embarrassment to the governments in the accomplishment of their task. Even now there are signs of the growth of such a party. From the *Daily Mail* of 27th February, I quote the following:—

Let there be no 'penal peace,' cries the magnanimous Professor Pigou. Let us make terms 'with a nation still strong.' . . . another Professor—this one of Oxford—pleads that there shall be no humiliation of Germany. Germany, who has spared nothing, shall herself be spared. The massacre of Belgium, Louvain, Rheims all must be forgotten and forgiven lest the feelings of Germany should be hurt.

Feelings of outraged justice, of indignation may be left aside. Even from the point of view of our own selfish fears nothing could be more disastrous than to make peace with Germany "still strong." Should we make peace now on the terms which Germany would offer, nothing is more certain than that the passage of a few years will see us plunged

once again into this titanic conflict, which will be waged with even greater fierceness and bitterness on both sides. Even to take the most optimistic view, we could not hope to be relieved of that incubus of huge armaments which has been the scourge of Europe for the last forty years. But it is useless to hope to be let off so lightly. History, which has furnished us with so many lessons and analogies for the present war, once again tells us plainly that if we do not bring Germany to her knees now, we shall all be at one another's throats again within a decade.

Twice during modern times has England had to wage war for the liberties of Europe as well as to safeguard herself—against the onslaughts of a would-be world conqueror, just as she is doing to-day. In the one case the enemy was Louis XIV., in the other it was Napoleon. Incidentally the Kaiser William II. is said to have set both of these before him for an example. One wonders why he has not been warned by their disastrous failures. Against Louis XIV. England fought all through the reign of William III. along with her allies for the defence of the Low Countries. Against the onslaughts of the French that great General, William, made a gallant and successful stand, but although he checked them he could not defeat them. The war dragged on from 1689 till 1697. There was a party then opposed to the war, as it is feared there may be now. The Englishmen of the day could not see their danger. They did not put their hearts into the war, nor back up their gallant king. In 1697 was concluded the Peace of Ryswick, practically on the basis of the *status quo ante*. What was the consequence? In 1702 England had to embark on the war of the Spanish succession—a far bloodier and more costly war than the one which had been indecisively concluded in 1697.

In 1793 England embarked on the war with Revolutionary France, a war which commencing for the salvation of Europe from anarchy, resolved itself into one of defence against Napoleon. This war was brought to an end by the Peace of Amiens in 1802—a peace which was practically a recognition of the *status quo ante*. In exactly fifty-one weeks after signing this peace, England and France were at war again, and continued at

war till 1814. Even this was not sufficient. When the Peace of Paris was signed in the latter year, it seemed that all danger from Napoleon was at an end. Yet Waterloo had to be fought before he was finally defeated.

If these examples are not enough, we turn to the wars with France in the middle of the 18th century. In 1744 France and England commenced to fight about their overseas possessions. No decisive result was reached, and in 1748 was signed the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, with the inevitable restoration of conquests. But the causes of rivalry were not removed, and in 1756 commenced the Seven Years' War, which after much bloodshed and losses at last brought the matter to a decision.

Is not the lesson driven home? History teems with examples of the danger of drawn wars. Ask any schoolboy, why, when the Persians invading Greece received a check at Marathon in 490 B.C., they come again in 480; why the truce between Athens and Sparta in 421 B.C. in the midst of the Peloponnesian war came to naught; why he is troubled with the details of three Punic wars in Roman History, and not merely one? The answer is always the same. The most superficial reading of history should prove to the most convinced pacifist that the only way to bring about a lasting peace between ourselves and Germany is either for us to submit to Germany's demand for world dominion, or else to draw her teeth and deprive her of the power of doing any harm in the future. There is no middle course. If the dead bodies of our brothers—Britons, Colonials, Christians, Mussalmans, Hindus, Sikhs—do not cry out to us to finish the work for which they have so gladly laid down their lives, let us think of our own precious skins and let each one of us enshrine in our hearts the words which the Prime Minister first uttered in November of last year, and repeated with solemn emphasis in the House of Commons on the first of March:—

We shall never sheath the sword, which we have not lightly drawn, until Belgium recovers in full measure all, and more than all, she has sacrificed, until France is adequately secure against the menace of aggression, until the rights of the smaller nationalities of Europe are placed upon an unassailable foundation, and until the military domination of Prussia is wholly and finally destroyed.

HYDERABAD*

HYDERABAD is the premier Native State in India and the polygonal tract lying between $15^{\circ} 10'$ and $20^{\circ} 40'$, north latitude, and $74^{\circ} 40'$ and $81^{\circ} 35'$, east longitude, with an area of 82,698 square miles, is commonly known as the Nizam's Dominions. The tract is in the centre of the Deccan plateau, bounded by Berar and the Central Provinces on the north, the Bombay Presidency on the north-west, by the Kistna and Tungabhadra rivers on the south—the rivers forming the boundary of the Madras Presidency—on the west by the Bombay Presidency and on the east by the Wardha and Godaveri rivers and the Madras Presidency. The Dominions are easily divisible into two separate portions differing geologically and ethnologically—the Manjira and the Godaveri forming the line of division. The north and western portion forms the Trappean region and is inhabited by Mah rattas and Kanarese and the south and east portion, or the calcareous and granitic region, is peopled by Telugus. The former is the region of wheat and cotton cultivation, the latter of rice and irrigation, the difference of food and environment being responsible for very perceptible differences in the condition and character of the two populations. There is a mountainous region, the average elevation of which is 1,250 feet, the highest summit being 3,500 feet. The rivers are the Godaveri, the Kistna, the Tungabhadra, the Purna, the Peinganga, the Manjira, the Bhima, the Maner, the Musi, the Windi, the Munair and some other smaller streams. There is a great variety of surface and feature, wooded and picturesque, flat and undulating, with much fertile land, all of which has not yet been cultivated, and a considerable sterile tract impossible to cultivate. There are several large artificial lakes the latest being a reservoir to provide the city of Hyderabad with good water, and to prevent the flooding of the Musi stream, which, in 1908, washed away a portion of the city and occasioned enormous loss of life and property. *

The principal mineral products are diamonds, gold, coal, hornblende, mica, corundum, graphite, garnets and copper and other miscellaneous products are available in abundance. The Singareni coal-bed, one of the best known, averages 56 feet in thick-

ness. The flora of the State, if not so various and abundant as in Travancore and Mysore, contains valuable species of timber and fruit trees of many kinds. The fauna is marked by a great variety of wild animals from the elephant to the jackal, and feathered game is plentiful. The climate is agreeable during the greater part of the year, the rainy season beginning in June and ending in September, and the dewy or cold season lasting from October to January, so that there is only a short hot season of four months which is disagreeable. The mean temperature of the State is about 81° F. and the average rainfall 30 to 32 inches.

Population :—The population of the State is 13,374,676, the density varying considerably in the various towns and portions of the Dominions. Telugu is spoken by 46 per cent. of the population, Marathi by about 26 per cent., Kanarese by 14 per cent. and Urdu or Hindustani only by 10 per cent., the remaining 3 per cent. speak other languages. The Kapus or Kunbis are the great agricultural caste and form a little more than a quarter of the population. Next in order of decrease are the Malas, Dhers and Madigas, occupying a low social position. The other main castes are Gollas, (Dhangars) or shepherds, the Brahmins, the Vaishyas or traders, the Korwas, the Sahas (weavers), the Goundlas (toddy drawers and liquor vendors) and the Lambadis or public carriers. The aboriginal tribes Ghonds and Bhils number about 65,000.

Religion :—The population are adherents mainly of two religions, Islam and Hinduism. There are also Animists, Christians, Jains, Sikhs and Zoroastrians. Islam and Christianity are the only proselytising religions showing a gradual growth.

Missionary Enterprise :—Christian Missionaries carried on their work long ago in the Nizam's Dominions, but it was not till 1834 that the first public English school was opened by a clergyman of the Church of England. The Roman Catholic Mission very soon followed the example and among other missions working, medically, evangelistically and educationally, are the Wesleyan, the Baptist, and the American Baptist Telugu Missions. What progress the Salvation Army has made of late years is not known.

Agricultural and Industrial :—Forty-six per cent. and more of the people are supported by agriculture and the principal crops are of jowari,

* This is the first of a series of articles on "The Native States of India," which will appear in successive issues of "The Indian Review."

cotton, bajra, rice, til (*Sesamum orientale*), wheat, castor-seed, gram, linseed, tuar, karar, maize, raler, mung (*Phaseolus Mungo*), Rodro (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*), chillies, tobacco and other minor crops, pulses, etc. Oranges, grapes and many Indian fruits are produced and sugar-cane is grown alternately with rice. Only very lately has an Agricultural Department been formed and particular attention is being paid to the cultivation of cotton. Industrially, the State is in a backward condition like other parts of India. The weaving of silk and cotton is carried on; gold and silver embroidery of superior quality, tasar silk fabrics, brocade and coloured silk and gold and silver thread, woollen carpets and rugs, filagree work, jewellery, bidri ware, sword blades and cutlery and smooth bore muskets, both the last of inferior quality, are made. With the facilities of coal, iron and cotton in the Province, however, industrial expansion is only a question of time.

Trade and Commerce :—There are no reliable statistics, but the internal trade is greater than the foreign trade. The channels of trade are by the G. I. P. Railway and the Madras and E. C. Railways which are connected with the Nizam's-Guaranteed State Railway and with the Hyderabad-Godavari Valley Railway. Roads in the interior, mostly bad roads, form lines of communication with the Railway lines. The principal exports are :—Linseed, castor-seed, other seeds, hides and skins, raw cotton and miscellaneous produce in small quantities. The imports are cotton twist and yarn, piece-goods, gram, kerosine oil, fruits and provisions, iron, tobacco and salt, besides the numerous European products now so necessary to Indian life.

Communications :—There are 471 miles of broad gauge and 391 miles of narrow gauge railway lines in the State. The Bursi light railway runs for a short distance. (See Trade and Commerce.)

Education :—Education is generally in an admittedly backward condition and every effort is being made to remedy this glaring defect. The Nizam's Government has recently appointed a Director of Public Instruction. The Nizam's College is affiliated to the Madras University. An Oriental College prepares students for the local vernacular examinations and there are 25 high schools, 63 middle schools, 917 primary schools and 24 special schools.

Antiquities :—Hyderabad possesses many objects of archeological and historic interest such as forts, temples, cave-dwellings, etc. Golconda,

Gulburga, Warangal, Raichur, Mudgal, Paraida and Naldurg are good examples of the old forts used in Indian warfare. The caves of Ellora, Ajanta, Aurungabad and Osmanabad (Dharaseo) are interesting survivals, while some of the Hindu temples are of great antiquity, notably those of Hanamkonda, Tuljapur and Ambajogai. These antiquities are almost the oldest types of Buddhist, Jain and Brahminical architecture. Fine specimens of Mohammedan architecture are seen in the Gulburga Fort, the Char Mina, the Char Kamair and in the tombs of the Kutb kings.

Administration :—The Nizam is the head of the State and governs more or less on constitutional lines. Like all Native Princes he often acts on his own initiative by special proclamation. H. H. the Nizam is just now his own minister, Sir Salar Jung III, who was Prime Minister till very recently, being on leave. All matters of State importance are decided by the Council of the Prime Minister consisting of the five Assistant Ministers presiding over the financial, judicial, military, public works and ecclesiastical interests of the Dominions. These are finally disposed of by the Nizam himself. A strong Secretariat deals with the various departments and the territory is divided into divisions, talukas, etc., with a suitable executive and controlling staff. A Legislative Council of 21 members discusses and passes the laws of the State which finally receive the Nizam's assent. Of this number of Councillors, 13 are official and 8 non-official. The Minister is the President. Of the non-official members some are elected.

The laws are based on Mahomedan Jurisprudence, the Hindu Shastras and special laws binding on a particular community or customs and usages having the force of law. The laws in force in British India and elsewhere are also consulted. The State maintains a local post office and uses its own stamps. The British postal operations are, perhaps, larger, but both systems work amicably. The State has its own currency, the Osmania Sicca rupee with small coinage. The Maubia rupee was struck in 1904 the ratio of such rupees being 115 or so to British rupees 100. The Nizam has a considerable army of nearly 20,000 troops of which 6,000 are regulars, and 14,000 irregulars. The Nizam's Imperial Service Troops are well-known and are nearly 700 strong. They are just now at the Front in France fighting the Germans.

History of the State :—The history of the State is lost in antiquity as it goes back to Dravidian times. King Asoka, two or three centuries before Christ, held sway over parts of what is now the Nizam's

Dominions. That sway was followed by the sway of three great Hindu dynasties the Pallavas, the Chalukyas and the Yadavas. Then there was a Mahomedan irruption in 1294 and subsequently for about five centuries, various dynasties, and chieftains held sway in parts, and waged an unceasing war till Aurangzebe of the great Moghuls established Chin Kulich Khan, who was a descendant of the first Caliph Abu Bakr, and in the female line of the Prophet Mohammed, as his Viceroy and Subadar of the Deccan in 1713, with the title of Nizam-ul-Mulk Bahadur Fateh Jung. In the laxity of sway from distant Delhi and the intrigues and quarrels in that city, Fateh Jung found his opportunity, and asserted his independence, and confirmed that position by winning the battle of Shakar Kelda in October 1724. The first Nizam died in 1748, and up to 1761 the State was involved in the struggle between the French and English for supremacy. In 1761 the Nizam finally decided to support the British, and entered into a treaty and he and his people have been loyal ever since. The Nizam was the British Ally in crushing the Mahrattas and Pindarces and, during the struggle with Hyder and Tippu and, through the critical years of the Mutiny, the Nizam has been consistently loyal to the British in India. The King Emperor has referred to him as "Our Friend and faithful Ally."

The Berars:—No history of the State, however brief, can be complete without a reference to the Berars, a tract of country otherwise known as the Hyderabad Assigned Districts with an area of 17,710 sq. miles and with a population of over 2,843,998. This Province was administered by

the British Government since 1853³ on behalf of the Nizam. In 1860 a new treaty was concluded with the Nizam by which a debt of 50 lakhs due from him was cancelled and the territory of Surapur and the districts of Dharaseo and Raichur were restored to the Nizam as a partial reward for his support in 1857. On his part the Nizam ceded certain districts on the left bank of the Godavari and agreed that the Berars should be held in trust for the purposes specified in 1853 treaty. The Berars were assigned indefinitely to the British Government, for the upkeep of the Hyderabad Contingent troops for the Nizam's use—the surplus revenues of the Province, if any, to be paid to the Nizam. By an agreement of 1902 the sovereignty of the Nizam over the Berars was re-affirmed and the tract was leased to the British Government in perpetuity to an annual rental of Rs. 25 lakhs. The British Government were to administer the Berars as they thought desirable and were given free power to reorganize and control the Hyderabad Contingent and were responsible for the safety and protection of the Nizam's State. The Contingent was in the year following the treaty made an integral part of the Indian Army and the administration of the Berars tract is now under the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.

Personal:—The present Nizam is H. H. Asaf Jah, Muzaffar-ul-Mamaluk, Nizam-ul-Mulk, Nizam ul-Daulah, Nawab, Mir Sir Osman Ali Khan Bahadur, Fateh Khan. He was born on the 6th April, 1886 and ascended the Musnad on the 29th August 1911.

He has shown much interest in the State administration and personally supervises affairs.

DESTINY

BY MRS. SAROJINI NAIDU.

*It chanced on the noon of an April day
A dragonfly paused in his sunward play;
And furled his flight for a passing hour
To draw the soul of a passion flower. . . .
Who cares if a ruined blossom die,
O bright, blue, wandering dragonfly?*

II.

*Love came by with his carven flute.
His glowing eye and his winged foot;
"I am weary," he murmured, "O let me rest
In the sheltering joy of your fragrant breast."
At dawn he fled and left no token
Who cares if a Woman's heart be broken?*



THE LATE MIKADO OF JAPAN.



THE LATE DOWAGER EMPRESS OF JAPAN.



H. M. LI HSI: King of Korea.



MARQUIS HIROBUMI ITO.



THE CHINESE EMPRESS.

From a Drawing by a Native Artist.



THE DOWAGER-EMPRESS OF CHINA.

From a Chinese Drawing.



YUAN SHI,KA




S. YAT SEN.

CONSTANTINOPLE

BY

PROF. J. NELSON FRASER, M.A.

 TOWARD the end of July 1914, I left Odessa and crossed the Black Sea to Constantinople. "Black Sea," it is justly named, and no one need puzzle his head over the epithet, as peradventure a man may over the *Mare Rubrum*. Be it due to the muddy bottom or to some property of the water itself, even under a blue sky the Black Sea is a sort of steely colour, chilly and unlovely beside the azure of the Mediterranean. It was calm enough when I crossed it, and other conditions were propitious, for the steamer—a new one—was one of the most luxurious I have ever seen—built of course in Great Britain for a Russian Company. Charges proportionately high.

Almost before you know it you are gliding up the Bosphorus. Rambling hills on either hand, dotted with innumerable houses and villas, and occasionally crowned by a fragment of a Genoese or Turkish fortification. The scene is interesting, but it will not much move an experienced traveller. The architecture is all commonplace and the fortifications are not large enough to be imposing—at least from the deck of a passing steamer. Their dark history of war and crime, of intrigue and misery, may be partially known to a few experts, but the general reader is ignorant of it. There is nothing that possesses, say, the grandeur of Chillon or the place among immortal themes that Chillon owes to Byron's verse. The modern villas belong mostly to rich or noble Turks—the Khedive had one of them, that is to say, the Khedive of 1914.

Constantinople proper you do not see till you reach the Golden Horn. This is a small arm of the Bosphorus, running at right angles to it. Naturally you do not see it, till you enter it, and then you find, quite suddenly, that you are in the very heart of Constantinople. The city occupies the low hills surrounding the Horn, so closely that there is not an inch of empty ground anywhere; you see nothing but tier after tier of houses rising above you. The effect is startling enough, especially as you come upon the scene so suddenly, but I quite decline to call it beautiful. The moment your eye lights on any particular

building it is seen to be mean and hideous; a square block with square windows in it, the colour harsh and staring. The only objects that break the monotony are one or two fine mosques; there is also the Palace quarter, where a few towers are visible.

Turning your back on the Golden Horn and looking across the Bosphorus you perceive Gallipoli, which will not long interest you, as it wholly resembles Constantinople, without anything of historic interest to promise the explorer. The quay where steamers touch lies just at the junction of the Horn and the Bosphorus; it is small but sufficient for its purpose, and I had no trouble in landing and lodging myself at the Hotel Germania.

All the hotels lie up the hill on the north side of the Horn, in the quarter called Pera, which has always been the foreigners' place of residence. It is now an immense straggling region, with fairly good streets of a commonplace continental type. Here are situated the best shops of Constantinople, but compared with those of other European cities they are neither splendid nor interesting. There is an excellent system of cars placing all parts of the city in communication.

Constantinople of the Turks lies on the other side of the Horn, which is now crossed by a fine pontoon bridge. The caiques of ancient days have now vanished, their place being taken by a crowd of little steamers. This change is a great loss from the æsthetic point of view, as the steamers burn soft coal, which fills the Horn with dense suffocating smoke.

The buildings of the old city are a degree more interesting than those of Pera. Most of them are just the same in type and look as though fifty years might be the limit of their antiquity, but there are some picturesque little bits, where vines over trellised court-yards, and occasionally there is a fragment which speaks of the middle ages or even a remoter past. The streets are very narrow and crooked and lead nowhere, and even with Badecker's excellent maps much patience is needed to make your way about. This patience, however, at the time of my visit was

not tried by dirt or foul smells. The cleanliness of the whole city struck me as astonishing. I understand, of course, that this is an innovation; a few years ago the tourist's leading impression of Constantinople was one of dirt and dogs. Both to-day have equally vanished.*

Equally vanished is the Constantinople of remote antiquity. Whatever is left of it is presumably in part underground, for cities have a strange way of hoisting themselves on the shoulders of their predecessors; the most striking scene in this kind visible to-day is the Atmeidan. The Horse-Maidan, we Anglo-Indians would say; it was a Turkish place of exercise occupying the place of the Hippodrome. The reforming activities of recent years have turned it into a pleasant little garden, where the sacred relics which it enshrines are honoured with due care. The most ancient of these is the granite obelisk which Theodosius brought from Egypt; it was erected here on a pedestal, where he and his family are represented in their box at the circus. The visitor, probably more or less familiar with things Egyptian, will no doubt gaze with utmost curiosity on the pedestal, where the clumsy grouping of the Royal Family gives us no exalted idea of the Court or their art.

More moving in its interest is the bronze pillar which once supported the tripod at Delphi consecrated by the Greeks after their victory at Plataea.

Round the pillar are carved the bodies of three snakes, whose heads were struck off by Mahmud when he entered the city in 1453. Thus what is left is now (as usually) but a fragment of the past; it serves no other purpose than to make the past for a moment real. Our early acquaintance with the past being founded on books, our first sight of the actual relics of antiquity brings with it a pleasing shock of conviction and reality. Of course under other circumstances this experience might be connected with literature. In India, for instance, where all great monuments are vaguely ascribed to the Pandus, we miss the sense of connection with their authors which we should derive from some written historical record of their origin.

No doubt there are many small traces of the Byzantine age which the eye of the trained archaeologist would detect, but for the tourist these do

* The dogs' lives were spared but they were transported to an unoccupied island where, through some oversight of Destiny, they were starved to death.

Racon somewhere remarks on the charity of the Turks towards animals; it was at Constantinople that a Christian boy "had like to have been put to death, for that in a waggishness he gagged a long-billed fowl."

not exist, and when he has surveyed the Atmeidan he had better turn at once to the Museum. This is a large and very creditable institution, where the only trace of the old Turkish spirit is that you are not allowed to take notes. I almost wished that the authorities had something better to look after, so painstaking was their care of many insignificant fragments of antiquity. Destiny, however, has only committed to them one first rate treasure, the Alexander Sarcophagus. It was once thought to contain the clay of the great Emperor himself, but this is now known to be out of the question. It is a marble structure, with deep reliefs on every side, the figures being comparatively small and pictorial as much as plastic in their effect. On two sides there are battle-scenes of Persians and Macedonians, on two others hunting scenes. The most successful is one of the battle-scenes, and it is one of the finest pieces of Greek art in existence. The drapery, the flesh, the pose and the action all show the unapproachable grace and charm of Greece; it is strange to find them associated with a scene of cruelty and bloodshed. But you can hardly think of it as a battle piece—not at least till you have quite forgotten its artistic qualities or take them simply for granted. This, for me at least, in the moment of my arrival, was impossible, for I came from Japan, where I had learned to worship—as I did then and do now—the art of Mongolia; but there is nothing in it to eclipse Greece, and it was a kind of renaissance on entering the Turkish Museum where I expected nothing of the kind to find myself face to face with a masterpiece of Athens.

We return once more to art and architecture. By the Atmeidan stands the famous mosque, once the Church of Aja Sophia, Hagia Sophia, the Divine wisdom of Christian theology. It makes but a poor impression from the outside, like all Byzantine architecture. The minarets are tall and graceful and like the minarets of other mosques they lend one—the only—poetic touch both to the building itself and the masses of the architecture of Constantinople. This unimposing character of the exterior makes the first step into the building all the more striking; you are quite overwhelmed by its grandeur, its far-reaching tremendous lines and the extraordinary impression of finality that it makes. I think myself there is always something of this impression about the round arch; it is the most enduring of all architectural forms and of course it is predominant in the Byzantine style. There are

round arches and colonnades forming the side-walls of Santa Sophia, the great dome is round, and a great sense of harmony pervades the whole interior. No less is it pervaded by a strong impression of antiquity, the colour of the stone being deepened and mellowed by the flight of centuries. Mahommedan ritual has not much changed the general appearance of things; there is of course no Christian altar, and in the empty apex a mihrab has been cut in the wall; a few stone pulpits are scattered about, and that is all. The mosaics have been damaged and partially obliterated.

Other mosques in Constantinople have all been framed on the lines of this, and as this was the first I visited, the others did not much impress me. Without much expectation I came therefore to the Suleimanic Mosque, reading unmoved in Baedeker that it was built by an Albanian in 1550, with the especial design of excelling Aja Sophia in its own style. This did not seem at all likely, and mere imitation of any work of art, no matter how successful, moves no spectator to great admiration. But what was my amazement, on surveying the building, to find that the architect had indeed fulfilled or at least justified his proud attempts; the Suleimanic not only fears no comparison with its great predecessor but even in some small points excels it. In some details of the pillars and arches within it seems to me more perfectly successful, and whether this opinion be right or not at least there can be no doubt of its supreme success. Of course I am well aware that to deliver a verdict on such great buildings from the impressions of a single visit is presumptuous. To appreciate and judge them with discretion you must wander about them and sit in them for many hours, or many days, even through many years, but when this is out of the question one must offer a first impression for what it is worth. And though Aja Sophia has more tragic memories and occupies a vaster space in history and in the thoughts of men, still, if I had but a day in Constantinople again I should first return to the Suleimanic.

Be it observed that I had nine days in Constantinople on this visit, but they were not days of philosophy and calm inspection of monuments. On the contrary it was just during those days that the Great Powers were firing off declarations of war against each other; like ordnance of the largest calibre these filled the sky with long-echoing reports, proclaiming the end of a secular epoch. It needed but little reflection to presage

at least as possible the ruin of Constantinople and Santa Sophia, and I felt as it were laid upon us the duty of seeing them before they perished—but I had also to get myself away in good time and there was a serious question of funds, for all my money was in Russian notes and nothing was negotiable. Thos : Cook was besieged by distressed tourists, clamouring for money and unappeased by the sympathy which was all he could offer them. I found myself reduced to a meal a day, my excursions circumscribed and even my thoughts disagreeably pre-occupied. Finally, Cook squeezed out a little gold, a compatriot changed a note, and an Italian boat—the *Capri*—blessings on its name—took me and a vast crowd of other fugitives to the Piræus.

I anticipate, however, and before I deal with the parting scene I will speak of the population of Constantinople.

Gone, for ever, I may say, is the gorgeous past. A trace of it passed before my eyes in a little book of pictures, which I bought from a Turkish hawkler on the quay. Here are types of all officials and functionaries of the Sublime Porte, in the days of its haughty splendour. There were no tourists in those days, but how they would have feasted their eyes on the many coloured turbans and robes by which the Sultan's retinue made themselves known, each in his degree, Grand Vizier, Policeman, high or low, mute or eunuch, Scribe or Judge. Now all but a dream. No crowd haunts the Palace Doors; the Sublime Porto, like the Castle of Bombay, is but an official phrase.

Even the common dress of old Turkey, the baggy trousers and turban, are seldom to be seen in the city, though I saw enough of them among the soldiers that were mobilised. Educated Turks all wear European dress, the fez alone proclaiming the Mussalman, though the fez itself is misleading, since many Armenians wear it. But monotony of dress would not prevent the street crowd from being intensely interesting, if only you had a friend to explain it to you. Otherwise, it is impossible to tell whom you are looking at. The Turkish women do indeed, not a few of them, even to day go about veiled, in solemn black dresses that inflame no stranger's passions. But many have taken to European garments and such cannot by a stranger's eye be distinguished from females of other races. And many races crowd the streets of Constantinople; Greeks, Italians, Jews, Armenians and non-descripts from all parts of South-Eastern Europe. Black eyes

and complexions cream or sallow are common amongst them all. So, too, in Constantinople is stylish dress. The very poor presumably keep to their own quarters, for I saw little of them and beggars are no longer allowed in prominent places. Perhaps they have been provided for elsewhere; like the dogs; I know not.

The good humour of the populace struck me very much—considering what a crisis prevailed. There were struggling crowds at the banks—struggling for nothing!—and crowds at the bakers' shops struggling for bread. But there was no loud talking and no quarrelling. Even the soldiers, French, German and Turkish, all leaving to fight each other, all agreed not to quarrel in the streets of Constantinople. I think it must have been present to every one's mind what fearful scenes might be enacted if disorder once began there, with countless thousands of ancient enemies face to face and no police force of any size to restore order. Things might easily develop into a massacre unprecedented in the whole history of bloodshed. I at least thought so, and perhaps others; at any rate the whole crowd showed itself wonderfully quiet and self-controlled.

But where amidst them all was the veritable Turk? To see him was indeed my chief desire in visiting Constantinople. For he is not the least part of the great question, what is Europe and what is Asia? Who then is the Turk? It is not easy to spot him even in Constantinople, not even in a mosque, for many visitors from Central Asia draw themselves up in line among the Turkish believers in the mosques. Perhaps the Turkish regiments afforded the best chance of discerning the Turkish features and if this be so, and if my own judgment is correct, then (i) the Turk is a white man, (ii) his features are something like those of old-fashioned Scotland. It would not follow that the Turkish invaders of the fifteenth century wore the same features, for (i) natural features change from age to age, (ii) there has no doubt been a great mixture of foreign, even of European blood, amongst the Turks. Nevertheless I venture on these conjectures as not impossible:—(i) the Turks never were a Mongolian people; (ii) they are closer allied to the Persians than to the Mongols; (iii) but closer to the white than to the sallow or olive coloured races (remembering indeed that these white races should rather be called "florid," and that the white races, as opposed to the brown, should be divided into sallow and florid). Probably the ancestors of the Hungarians were not very

different from those of the Turks, though in Europe they have become their determined enemies. What stepped in between them was the Christian religion, and later the growth of political and moral freedom ("individualism") in Europe. This last is the chief dividing line between Europe and Asia, though it came very nearly being crossed by the Arabs; Ibn Khaldoun is more modern in tone than any European of his age. But it was never in sight among the Turks, though their character has some elements that appeal to the European, and the actual gulf between them and the European of the fifteenth century was comparatively small. The name of Christianity—for one doubts if much real difference in point of view lay beneath it—kept them apart, and incessant war hardened their mutual sentiment. Later on, the movement of the Revolution created a more real breach than anything that preceded it.

Turkey had its own Revolution a few years ago, and we know that her friends had great hopes of her future. Nor, if as judged by Constantinople alone, would those hopes appear groundless. There is no doubt that much has been gained in the administration of the city and real—probably permanent—progress has set in. It is in this country districts, as I am told, that the worst failings of old Turkey survive, the corruption, misgovernment and cruelty which made the name of the whole country a reproach. There is only too much evidence in support of these changes; but I think without being an optimist that there was plenty at Constantinople to encourage a hope that good influences might spread abroad and redeem the future. Unfortunately the Turks have taken the wrong turning in the war, so their opportunities for good or bad government are likely to be cut short.

I fancy that most tourists will carry away from Constantinople some kindly feelings towards the Turk. Whatever be his corruption in office, he is an honest man in private dealings, at least more holy than his neighbours in the Levant. Having been bred to a ruling part he does not practice importunities for *buckshish*, and if you treat him like a gentleman he does not impose on you. His manners and his speech are quiet, and I fancy he must be classed among the taciturn rather than the voluble of mankind.

Constantinople I left as one of the stream of refugees. Very thankful I was to find myself on the *Capri* surveying the quay behind me

There were streams of country Turks mobilised for the great adventure, tramping in with their few belongings slung in bags about them, pressing forward to the depots where arms and uniforms were served out and thence onwards to the frontier. Most of them were young, but there were many grizzled heads to be seen and age itself was not spared. Nothing was spared. The cab horses were all seized, and I could scarcely get myself and my baggage transported to the quay. Turkey surely meant to strike that very moment and I cannot imagine now what held her back.

Eighteen nationalities crowded the *Capri*. She came from Odessa, and brought with her three Englishmen, escaped by a miracle from Baku. Then there were hundreds of fugitive Greeks, battered wretched people who ought on every ground of reason to have flung themselves into the sea, but far from doing so had made it the aim of their lives to multiply their kind. Many were going from Constantinople to Smyrna—no great change of misery. But people like these, born and bred to misery, do not seem to feel it; paradoxically, as one may say, they seem to be comfortable only in a state of misery. If, for instance, you could cure their sore eyes, they would be uneasy till they got them infected again. Endless bundles they carried with them; broken furniture, as cumbrous and unprofitable as Bardoiph's late-case; in good sooth they were a "picturesque" crowd. Sleeping among them there was a Russian millionaire, with his pockets stuffed full of Russian notes. In the first class there was an American rich in gold, who gave half a sovereign to the boatman at Smyrna and peradventure came nearer being robbed and murdered than he imagined. I hope he got through to the Stars and Stripes all right. Then there were French and Italians, and heaps of Germans. I sat at table with eleven Germans and one Russian. We were all at war, yet, we were all good friends on that boat. Those Germans were all men of nearly forty years of age, dragged from their families and their business to danger and possibly to death and almost certainly to ruin, but their tone was cheerful and quite friendly to Great Britain. They were not Germans of to-day's Imperial mould but Germans of an earlier day, which no one esteems more than myself. We exchanged views

a little, not losing right of realities or forgetting our countries' causes, but joining in a hope that human nature would not be degraded nor human good feeling swept away by the coming struggle. Germany has done much in the last three months to bring about this disaster to Europe and the world, but I am glad to think my own last interview with the enemy was one from which (when they are scourged into penitence) I can draw strength against malice and catch a vista of reunion. In our dealings with our fellow-men it is always general views that foster enmity and cynicism, kindly feeling springs up between man and man. "I hate mankind," said Swift, "but I can make a shift to love Tom and Dick and Harry."

Swiftly the *Capri* turned from the quay, and glided out of the Golden Horn, and in a moment the myriad houses of the city, the mosques and the scraglio was lost to view. The voyage was not uncomfortable. The food was excellent. The passengers by common consent avoided all quarrelling and the horror of the scene disappeared in a kind of gaiety. We had an anxious day at the Dardanelles, where the Turks for twenty-four hours refused to pass us. Their attitude was variously interpreted by the passengers. Some opining they had lost a torpedo, others that nothing more was designed than to establish the power of Turkey. Anyhow, there we lay for a day, surveying the long hills that line the Strait, gaunt wildernesses, of no civilisation reminiscent or prospective. Next us was the *Saghalien*, crowded with French reservists, who had left Pera four days before, with much waving of tricolours and singing of the Marseillaise. Now they were Turkish prisoners—and I believe it was weeks before they escaped. We were luckier, for next day our release was sanctioned, and a tug was sent to guide us through the mines. We did not fail to follow her inch by inch, till at last she hooted in token of our security and we joyously hooted a triple note—at once acknowledgment and farewell.


Thence to the Piræus. A moment's sensation, as the *Breslau* and *Goeben* raced past us; a little tedium at Smyrna and at last the Piræus. Most of the passengers went on with the *Capri*, but I tumbled ashore and stepped forth to reconnoitre for another campaign.

ETHICS OF WAR IN MUSSULMAN INDIA

BY

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 I propose in this article to deduce, as far as possible, from details culled from political history those unwritten rules and principles which actuated the dealings of our Mussulman rulers in their wars with each other and with their neighbours of other creeds.

CAUSUS BELLII.

Various causes contributed to the wars of Islam in India. Desire for sea-trade and land-empire was probably the main cause in the earliest times. The invasions of the 11th century aimed at booty and plunder and at the glory of iconoclasm. Later wars were due to lust of dominion. Their results ripened into the Afghan kingdom of Delhi and the Mughal empire of Hindustan. During the same period the desire for the profits of the sea-borne trade of India actuated the settlements of the Muhammadans in Malabar and their wars with local Rajahs there and with the Portuguese new-comers. It is true that the one great element in these wars was the iconoclastic zeal and desire to make converts. But the force of religion has been greatly exaggerated. The colonies of Mussulman Arabs in Sindh set up a government there, which was as remarkable for religious tolerance as it was for economic efficiency. The descendants of Arabs and Moorish settlers in Malabar displayed their fanatical zeal against the fanatical Portuguese, but they had been living for long ages in that part of the country respecting the religious customs and usages of the Malabarians. Secondly, in addition to wars between the Faithful and the Infidel, there were also wars between one sect of Muhammadans and another. When a Sunni ruler made war on a Shiah king, the Shiah soldiers in the employ of the former seldom showed any scruples in fighting with brother-Shiahs in the army of the latter. Even men of the same sect thought little of slaughtering their fellow-religionists when their leader had to wade to the throne through slaughter and civil war.

Nor can it be said that these wars were more conspicuous for humanity than the wars of the Islamites with men of alien faiths.

COMBATANTS.

The ethics of warfare largely depend on the formation of a class of combatants subjected to drill and discipline, and the control possessed over them by those responsible for the conduct of hostilities. The armies of the period consisted of a sort of foudal array, of bands of mercenaries engaged from time to time, and of a national militia recruited in rare cases by compulsory enlistment. Every Jaghirdar was bound to bring into the field a definite number of troops in accordance with the rank of *mausab* held by him. European travellers like Bernier state that in important campaigns the people at large were bound to follow their ruler. Mercenaries were freely employed, especially in the declining days of Mughal rule, and they had no stomach for hard or consistent fighting. It was difficult to maintain the rules of war in a motley array whose pay was mostly in arrears. The infantry were a despised force. There were a few picked troops round the person of the king or emperor; the rest were a mere rabble of foot soldiers and camp followers. The fate of a battle depended on the conduct of the cavalry and the elephants of the line.

Discipline in the Mughal army, already despicable in the eyes of Sher Shah, was hopelessly at fault in the days of Khafi Khan. Army organisation was defective too as the troops belonging to the noblemen could not be easily got under and kept in co-ordination subject to the orders of the central controlling power. The absence of a chain of subordination among the sectional commanders was felt soon after a battle began. Absence of instruction in tactics must be held to account for the small number of officers as compared with the men in the Mughal army lists. The fall of the Mughal empire was mainly due to these military difficulties. Such as

they were, any effectual check on the horrors of war on the field of battle must have been difficult in most cases.

WEAPONS OF WAR.

There is hardly any evidence of restrictions as regards the employment of instruments in warfare. The sword, spear and javelin, were in ordinary use, but fighting was done also without such instruments. The army contained gladiators, wrestlers and boxers, besides fencers, miners and mariners. It was obviously contrary to etiquette to attack an unarmed person with the aid of weapons or for a third person to interfere when two were engaged in hand-to-hand combat. Mussalman gunnery was more efficient than that of the Hindus, thanks to the attention paid to artillery by the Turks and Egyptians. The guns shot not merely shot and shell aimed at the life of the enemy, but materials calculated to inflict torture on the flesh. Lead, rockets, explosives and Naphtha balls are mentioned by Mussalman writers of the Afghan period. Turks of the eleventh century seem to have used a 'magic stone which raised a thick fog to cause confusion in the ranks of the enemy.' But these are rare instances. Warfare was conducted as a rule with the ordinary instruments, not prohibited by the modern rules of international law.

METHODS OF WARFARE.

It cannot be said that with the Muhammadans warfare was a 'game governed by elaborate rules' as it was among the Hindus in ancient and mediæval times. But a recent writer goes too far when he says that the Mussalman soldiers were altogether unhampered by these rules of war. It is true that night-fighting and ambushes were not plainly forbidden by the law and practice of Islamite nations even in Mughal times. Nor can it be said, as of Hindu warfare, that the men of the contending armies were comrades and companions till the beat of drum drew them apart and after its resounding stopped the military operations of the day. But these are instances where an invading army thought it its duty to give the enemy warning of its intended approach, and where peaceful negotiations were tried before hostilities were formally declared. Fighting was in most cases in the open plain and carried on in a bold straightforward fashion. There was a great measure of chivalry in many of the wars. It may be said, on the whole, that the open fighting of the Mughal army stood in contrast to

the guerilla warfare and sharp reprisals of the Mahrattas. Ruses and stratagems were doubtless employed on both sides. Instances there are where the surrender of an enemy was hastened by poisoning the wells and vitiating their food and drink, but these dishonourable devices were very rarely used, indeed.

ENEMY PERSON.

Scanty regard was shown to the person of the enemy. It is true that soldiers who applied for quarter were granted their request in normal cases. Barani specially mentions the fact that Alauddin refused quarter to the Mongol invaders. But Mughal conquerors even the best of them took an inhuman pride in erecting pyramids of the heads of the fallen enemy. Captured spies of course suffered a cruel death. Captured rebels were impaled or put to death with excruciating torture. It must be borne in mind, however, that we are speaking of mediæval times when horrors of war were great among other nations as well. Purchas says of Akbar's empire that "there is no instance in the world's history of such a kingdom having been won not only with so small an amount of human suffering but with so positive a relief from oppression." This language of exaggeration certainly contains an element of truth and may be made much of by one ambitious of obtaining a comparative estimate.

ENEMY CHARACTER.

Enemy character was acquired not merely by those who fought in the field but by their family and dependents. The capture of women and children belonging to the combatants was an unknown thing till the time of the Khaljis. But it became the fashion in later times that the women should pass into the harem of the conqueror and sometimes be sold into slavery with their children. The great Akbar introduced a change for the better in this respect. In the seventh year of his reign he ordered that the wives, children and dependents of captives taken in war should be free from molestation and be neither sold nor kept in slavery according to the practice then in vogue. "If the husband pursue an evil course, what fault is it of the wife? And if the father rebel, how can the children be blamed?" It is difficult to determine, however, to what extent this counsel of perfection was carried into execution. That women and children were captured as prisoners of war is clear in the chronicles. The *Tarikh-i-Alfi* mentions an

instance in the year 1567 and the Tabakat-i-Akbari in 1581. The lands and effects of an enemy also acquired enemy character. Wholesale sack of villages and pillage of towns were some of the incidents of warfare. But it was always recognised that the land of non-combatant agriculturists should be immune from the disturbance consequent on warlike operations. One of the maxims of Sher Shah was: "If we drive away the agriculturist, all our conquest are but of little profit." Though commercial activities between belligerent states were suspended during the war, this was no bar to the exercise of commercial rights by dealers in the necessities of life. The Brinjaris had their rights of property and trade respected by the belligerents.

PROPERTY IN WAR.

All the property of the enemy state and its subjects was the lawful prize of the conqueror. But the best of rulers never sanctioned plunder and pillage by the soldiery. Booty acquired by individual soldiers generally belonged to themselves. Even neutral territory was not exempt from violation, unless there was an agreement to the effect before the commencement of the war. As regards cultivated lands in the vicinity of the camps, they enjoyed protection in Mughal times. The state took steps to make this protection effectual. "Trustworthy men were appointed to carefully examine the land after the camp had passed and were ordered to place the amount of any damage done against the Government claim for revenue." "Sometimes even bags of money were given to these inspectors so that they might at once estimate and satisfy the claims of the ryots and farmers." In the land of the enemy the residence of the Utama, the Sayyids and Holy men alone were exempt from devastation. The temples and other places of infidel worship were mostly plundered or razed to the ground, and mosques built on the ruins. One broad exception has, however, to be made. The Mongol race has shown in history a surprising regard for the artistic traditions and products of the countries conquered by the sword. Though instances of vandalism may be easily cited, they did not go so far as may be imagined. Their objects were less the noble works of architecture and sculpture than the fine specimens of the iconographer's art.

TERMINATION OF WAR.

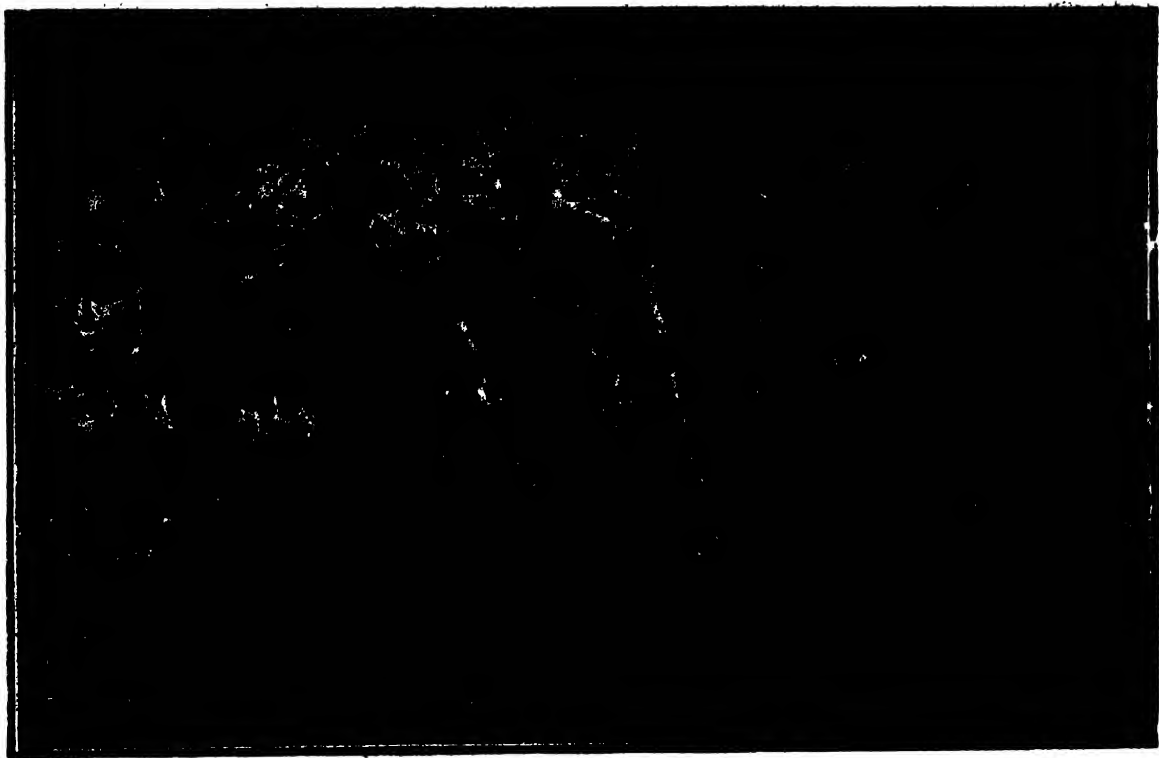
War had a glorious end when it was terminat-

ed by a treaty. The conqueror addressed the conquered as son and the latter reciprocated the relationship. Then presents were exchanged, tributes offered or insisted on and hostages demanded in the case of adversaries not thoroughly subjugated. This mode of ending warfare was more exceptional than usual. In most campaigns the idea seems to have been that war ended only when one of the sides was beaten into effective submission or political annihilation. The commander of a fortress or a city who surrendered to the besiegers was usually allowed to march out with his family and effects. But there were numerous exceptions to this rule.

The conqueror took possession not only of the lands and estates of the conquered but in many cases of his women and personal belongings. Every successful campaign meant an addition to the harem of the victor. A fifth of the land taken in war was the legitimate share of the conqueror by the law of Muhammed. As regards the men of the locality, they were generally allowed to remain, if they were agriculturists; otherwise they were liable to be driven out or enslaved. They could be subjected to the *jazia* or poll-tax if they were not of the faith. But little else was changed in the land by the new masters. Peaceful commerce revived with redoubled vigour owing to its suppression during the continuance of hostilities. The life of the Indian village went on as of old and even such changes as were attempted were of hardly any political significance. As Sir W. Hunter puts it, "the Muhammedan conquerors never succeeded in really forcing their system on the races of India."

CONCLUSION.

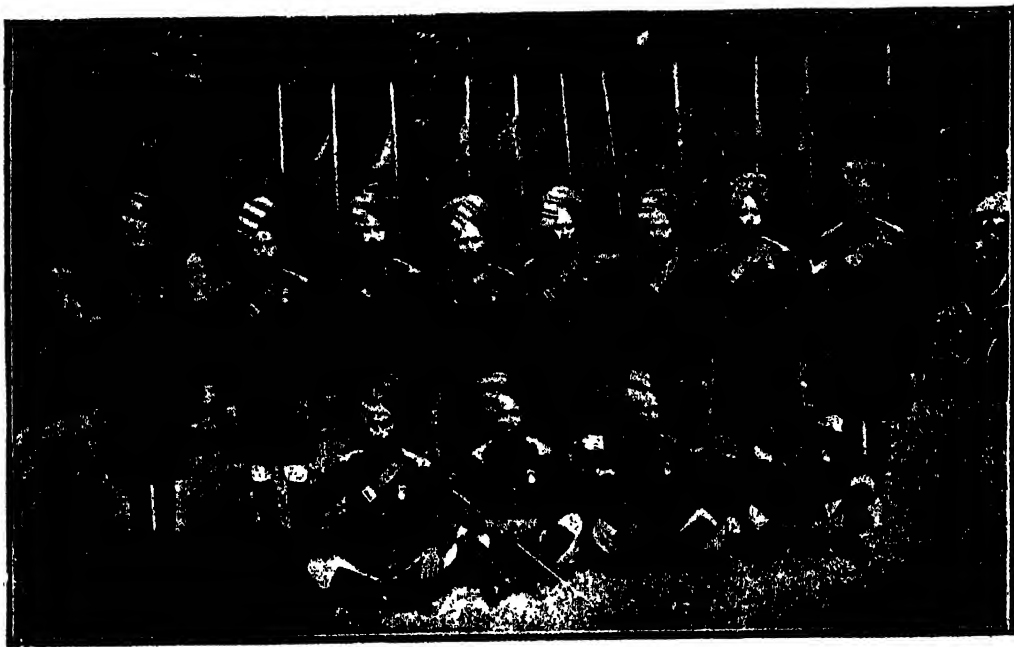
Such were the rules of warfare, so far as one could generalise from the facts of military history. Local customs were, doubtless, divergent; and rules which were in vogue at one time were discarded by a later generation. There was nothing of the nature of an 'International Law,' which nations felt themselves bound to observe. But recent events lead us to doubt whether the present times are really far ahead of the mediæval. Of what avail is the work laboriously done in the 'Palace of Peace' at the Hague when the Halls of Kultur rejoice over the sinking of the 'Falaba,' glory in acts of submarine piracy, and applaud the massacres of Louvain and Dinant, of Aerschott and of Senlis?



GURKHAS ON THE MARCH IN FRANCE.



GROUP OF 15TH SIKH INFANTRY.



DETACHMENT OF SIKH INFANTRY.



BENGAL LANCERS.

INDIA'S FIGHTING RACES.

THE SIKHS.

Quite a third of the Indian Army is composed of Sikhs. The founder of their religion was a contemporary of the first two Mogul Emperors, who infused fire into, and evolved a united body out of, the existing military classes of the Punjab. The new religion was a national mixture of what was best in Hinduism and Mahomedanism. The Sikhs are thus not exactly a race, but a military caste bound to one another by the tie of religion. A strong religious sentiment and sterling military ability are the two traits in the composition of every Sikh.

At the dawn of the seventeenth century, the Sikhs first appear in history as a political factor. Govind Singh, the last of the *Gurus*, whose father was martyred by Aurangzeb, preached that war, especially against the Mahomedans, was the first duty of his adherents. He levelled up all caste distinctions, instituted the military brotherhood of the Khalsa, and transformed them into such doughty warriors that, within a century after his death, they had dominated the whole of Northern India. The kingdom which they carved for themselves attained the zenith of splendour under Maharaja Ranjit Singh who died in 1839. It was destroyed as the result of the Sikh wars of 1845-6 and 1848-9 waged against the British, in which both sides fought with the utmost gallantry.

The Sikhs, by their courage in these wars, gained the admiration of the British and have ever since been loyal British subjects. They have fought side by side with British soldiers not only in the Mutiny, but in Abyssinia, Afghanistan, China, Burma, Somaliland and Tibet. In dealing with the invaluable services rendered by Indian troops during the storm of the Mutiny, the late Sir William Hunter has truly said: "The Sepoy Army has built up the fabric of the British Empire in India." And among the troops who helped to save the British dominion in India at that period, the Sikhs were not the least conspicuous. But for the help of the "Sikh, Hindu and Mahomedan sepoys and police," in the words of Capt. L. J. Trotter, "our own countrymen would have fought in vain."

The Sikhs are noted for their brilliant bayonet charges. Holding the butt of their guns with both hands, they mercilessly drive the steel into the abdomen or ribs of their enemies. They some-

times wear quoits round their turbans. These steel discs with razor-sharp edges they fling with great force at their enemies, invariably cutting off their heads.

Various instances of Sikh bravery may be told. The storming of the fort of Dargai during the Tirah campaign of 1897 was one of their most brilliant exploits. In the same year, a garrison of 21 privates of the 36th Sikhs occupied a tiny mud blockhouse at Saraghari, a signalling post on the North-West Frontier. They kept at bay nearly 8,000 Orakzais for six and a half hours, and not until the whole garrison had been extirpated were the fanatic horde able to break into the fort. In the Chitral campaign of 1895, a Sikh private covered himself with glory. In the words of Mr. Saint Nihal Singh: "Although suffering from such a serious wound in his leg that eventually it had to be amputated," he "stubbornly refused to permit himself to be carried to the rear by the bearer corps, but gallantly kept on fighting until he swooned from loss of blood." The siege of Arrah during the Mutiny afforded a touching example of Sikh fidelity. The Sikhs remained true to their British comrades, doing everything in their power to cheer and preserve them. Similar deeds of Sikh dash and daring are many.

The Indian Army at present includes thirteen Sikh battalions, and there are one or more Sikh squadrons in each of the Cavalry regiments, as well as a company or two in each of the Infantry battalions. They are tall broad-shouldered men and the flower of the Indian Army. They are very independent, but obey discipline for discipline's sake, and their Officers for love of them. The Jat-Sikhs combine the best qualities of the Pathan races with those of the Sikh tribes. They are the finest types of free, self-respecting, well-disciplined, in contradistinction to machine-made, soldiers. According to Mr. Reginald Hodder: "In the thick of battle the Sikh is cool and resolute. He is possessed of grim determination and tenacity. Just as in any emergency of social life he will keep his head with admirable self-restraint, so in the clash of battle he can be relied upon to do the right thing at the right moment in the right way. While not possessing quite so much *elan* as some other tribes, he more than compensates for that lack by his immunity from any tendency to panic."

THE GURKHAS.

There are twenty complete infantry battalions of these brave little men in the Indian Army. As fighters in the hills, they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans of the North-West Frontier. Their proficiency as soldiers was first proved in the Nepal War of 1814, the most sanguinary in the history of British wars in India. They proved themselves to be as formidable as enemies then as they are invaluable to-day as brothers-in-arms. "Brave as lions, vain as peacocks, faithful as dogs, with few prejudices in peace and none in war," they are, as has been well said by a British officer who knows them well, "the special friends and companions" of Tommy Atkins. They do not, like the Sikhs, throw away their food if a white man's shadow falls upon it, but eat their food on a campaign with as few formalities as the British soldier drinks his beer with. Their national weapon is the *kukri*, a knife with a broad, curved blade, and their skill with it is so remarkable that, given a human mark, say, in the shape of a German, they can take off his nose or ear, or pierce his eye with unerring precision. They never lose a chance of practising with this weapon, which they carry in addition to their other arms, suspended from their waist belts. It is the deft and singular use they make of this remarkable weapon, that make these valiant little men of Nepal so terrible in war.

Their valour has won for them the appellation of the "Highlanders of India." Beside their big Scotch brothers-in-arms they appear, however, as the "Little Benjamins" of the Indian Expeditionary Force. They are largely of Mongolian origin, but some of them have Rajput blood flowing in their veins. Their Hinduism is strongly tinged with Buddhism, although they eat meat, are fond of liquors and use tobacco. They are short of stature and inclined to be stout. This has given rise to the *bon mot* that "they are 5 feet high in some places, and 5 feet round in others." Anecdotes illustrative of the Gurkha's ready wit, colossal vanity and happy conceit are many. On being praised for their gallantry in the assault on Bhurtপুর, they returned the compliment, saying: "The English are as brave as lions; they are splendid sepoys, and *very nearly* equal to us." When Colonel Younghusband met the Russian explorer, Gromschefski, in the Pamirs, a Gurkha officer of the escort approached their commander with the request: "Tell the big Russian that though *we* are small men, all the rest of our regiments are taller than he is."

The Gurkhas in the middle of the 18th century conquered the Nepal valley. In 1776, they defeated the Ruler of Sikkim, and subsequently extended their rule to the neighbouring States, including Tibet. During the war with the English, they displayed brilliant courage, and amply justified their title to be regarded as among the finest fighting races in the world. As the result of their bravery in the war, their indomitable spirit was linked with that of the British, and it has subsequently been displayed on many a field side by side with the British. The second Tibetan War in 1854 was another important event in recent Gurkha history. They have been a dominant military race for the last century and a half. Since the peace of Sogowli, the relations of the Nepal Durbar with the British Indian Government have been most cordial. Shortly after the outbreak of the present war, the Prime Minister of Nepal placed the army of the State at the disposal of the British Government, besides giving a sum of Rs. 330,000 for equipping Gurkha soldiers serving in British regiments with machine guns.

The heroic exploits of the Gurkhas side by side with the Highlanders in numberless campaigns serve to explain the fact why the arms of the late Lord Roberts came to bear, as supporters, a Highlander and a Gurkha. One of the heroes of the Mutiny was Colonel Gambar Singh, then a Gurkha sepoy. At Lucknow, he captured three guns and killed seven mutineers, single-handed, and armed only with his *kukri*. He was wounded in twenty-three places, lost some of his fingers, and had one of his hands nearly cut off, but refused to give up the struggle until he had accomplished his wonderful feat of arms. This is the spirit which animates the Gurkhas, and which has made it possible for them to carry so many battle honours on the standards of their Regiments. These include "Aliwal," "Sobraon," "Kandahar," "China 1900," "Afghanistan 78/80," and many others. The same spirit has shown itself on the Continent during the past few months. The following excerpt from one of the newest of new books on the War well illustrates this: "When the Gurkhas were told that they were wanted to fight in the great war they asked, 'Shall we all be killed?' and the officer said, 'Not all.' They inquired, 'Shall .. great many be killed?' He replied 'Possibly.' Then they asked, 'Will a hundred come back?' 'Perhaps so.' 'That will be enough,' they said; 'our people will know that we have fought well.'"

THE MAHRATTAS.

The Mahrattas, who have been called the "Cossacks of India," possess in an exceptional degree two of the most essential of soldierly virtues—sturdiness and tenacity. Rough riding across country has been their speciality since the beginning of the sixteenth century, when they first prominently figure in history. They are "particularly adept at rapidly dashing into the enemy's domains, delivering a deadly blow, and safely retreating." This was the method of warfare which they successfully employed against the Moghuls under their great leader Sivaji. Towards the close of the eighteenth century the Mahrattas had become masters of all Hindustan, but their dominion fell to pieces soon after as the result of their conflict with the British.

The recruiting area allotted to the old Bombay Army was larger in extent than that of the other presidential armies. The Mahrattas formed the strength of this Army however, and were recruited from the Konkan and the Dekhan. The latter area have furnished the best troops, who are short, hardy and brave. The Konkani Mahrattas in the ranks are numerically stronger, and, though taller and smarter than the Dekhanis, do not compare with them in endurance. The two classes now compose altogether fifty-four companies of infantry.

They are not born fighters, but Mahomedan persecutions drove the erstwhile peasants of the Dekhan into rebellion and they developed warlike instincts. They were converted into efficient soldiers by Sivaji and soon became aware of their capacity for conquest. Under him they formed loose hordes of lightly-clad horsemen, who hovered round camps and armies to carry off treasure, but avoided open encounters with regular armies in the field. Though somewhat under the average height, their irregular features indicate a tremendous capacity for endurance. Under their steady, quiet strength lie hid tractability, gentleness, patience and willingness to be led.

In their first meetings with them, the British found the Mahrattas formidable foes. In the second Mahratta War, Lake and Wellesley had a foretaste of the nature of "wild Mahratta battle," and of the terrible valour of the enemy who "fought like lions." At Laswarree, their prowess came as a surprise to Lake, who narrowly escaped being shot through the heart. He found his generalship matched by that of the Mahratta leader who, seeing the British preparing to decide

matters by the bayonet, instantly ordered his cavalry to charge. "Horse and foot met in one great shock of battle; sabre rang out against bayonet and musket flashed against pistol and carbine." In the *mêlée* that ensued, the Mahrattas were defeated. A bayonet charge by a numerically small force of infantry again converted the odds against the British into a glorious victory at Assaye. In the teeth of Scindia's guns, the forlorn hope rashly advanced to the attack: the Mahrattas, amazed and awed at this piece of audacity, retired rather than meet the collision of British steel: and the day was eventually lost to the Mahrattas, who were swept off the field. Wellesley had two horses killed under him, and every one of his staff officers shared the same experience. His orderly's head was swept off by a cannon ball as he rode close by his side.

The Mahrattas have proved that they were foemen as worthy of British steel a century ago, as they are to-day the comrades-in-arms of Tommy Atkins, worthy of the Empire they defend. The Mahrattas in the 1st Bombay Infantry proved their grit at Maiwand. At Suakin in 1885, the Mahrattas in the 28th Bombay Infantry similarly proved their quality. The historian of the Mahrattas, while he does not place their soldierly qualities as high as those of the Sikhs and Gurkhas, admits that they make excellent soldiers. "The very fact of their having played so conspicuous and not always ignoble a part in the history of India," says Grant Duff, "marks them out as a race with some qualities of the genuine soldier." The Duke of Wellington, who had such ample opportunities of forming a judgment in regard to them, rated them highly. The marching and recuperative powers they displayed in the wars he waged against them, were often prodigious. It has at the same time been said that the courage of the Mahrattas of old was the courage of the freebooter, and that the highest instincts of the soldier were never theirs. Whatever may have been the case formerly, they are certainly courageous to-day from motives other than those of lucre. It has also been laid at their door that the mould in which they are cast is anything but heroic: they "lack the elegant proportions of the Jat Sikh, the sturdy, well-knit little figure of the Gurkha, the grandly muscular build of the Pathan." Perhaps a more correct estimate of them would be that, as soldiers, they are "capable of rendering solid and useful if not brilliant military service." That this is true will indubitably be shown by their achievements in the present war.

THE RAJPUTS.

The professional military caste of India from time immemorial, the Rajputs have always been men of high and noble sentiments and lofty ideals. Pride of race is their chief characteristic, and their one ambition has ever been to wield the sword, and wield it well. Of fine physique and martial bearing, they formed the backbone of the old Bengal Army, and have sustained the British flag in every campaign in the East. They now furnish 10 squadrons of cavalry and 100 companies of infantry in the Indian Army.

They are more or less pure-blooded modern Hindu representatives of the early Aryan emigrants. The more pure-blooded they are, the better soldiers they make. But they have been administrators as well as fighters, having always ruled in some part or other of India, and been ever famous for their military mettle. They have fairly preserved these characteristics. They disdain even now all professions except ruling and bearing arms, and above all, they despise agriculture. Sad economic conditions and the strict enforcement of the purdah, added to the habitual use of opium, are nowadays exerting a degenerating effect upon their physiques. Peace also has somewhat chilled their ancient military ardour. "But the Rajput is still a Rajput, and it would be as idle to deny that he makes a good soldier, as it would be to assert that he is still what he once was." In this peace-loving days, they are generally content to toy with their swords and shine in the reflected glory of their past achievements.

They know how to die, an essential of the true soldier. By discipline and example, they may be made to face death in a thousand grim forms; "but the dogged pertinacity, the spirit which refuses to recognise defeat, the capacity to rise above failure," are not theirs. They are easily depressed by failure. Nevertheless, a large portion of the Rajput population still furnish good fighting material. They learn to ride and hunt and use the sword when they are tiny tots, and early become excellent horsemen. They can gallop over the roughest country for miles together in the briefest space of time, and without food and drink. Naturally they make good cavalry-men, but also do very well in foot regiments. The sandy nature of their country has especially fitted them to serve in the Camel Corps. Many Rajput soldiers part their beards in the middle, and brush them straight back in a fashion that gives them a fierce look.

THE JATS.

The Jats are a fine warlike race found in Northern India—in the Punjab, Rajputana and the United Provinces. Tall, large-limbed, of majestic and often of handsome appearance, they are among the toughest of the military tribes. They furnish the Indian army with twenty-one squadrons of cavalry and sixty companies of infantry.

The name Jat is said to be derived from the Scythian tribe Jatii, who appear to have entered India later than the Aryans. They subdued considerable tracts previously occupied by Rajputs. Several of the greatest kings of early India, like Kanishka, were certainly Jats. The Jat recruits for the Indian army are mostly drawn from the Eastern Jats, a race of hardy peasants with military instincts, whose history has been marked by stern, hard fighting. The Khalsa Sikhs are drawn from the Jats, and owe their most lofty characteristics to them. The Jat Sikh respects himself wisely and is fully conscious that racially he is the flower of India.

From early days the district round Bhurtpore had a large Jat population. They carried on a desultory warfare with the early Muhammadan invaders. Long after, an expedition was sent by the Emperor Aurangzeb against the Jat Chief Churaman, whose stronghold was taken and his brother installed at Deeg as the Chief of the Jats by order of the Delhi Court. His son removed the Jat capital to Bhurtpore. He took a conspicuous part in the rebellions and civil wars which followed on the death of Aurangzeb. He joined the Maharattas in opposing Ahmed Shah Duranni, but owing to a disagreement withdrew his army before Panipat.

In 1805, the Jats held out with the utmost courage at Bhurtpore against the British, repelling three attacks delivered against the stronghold by Lord Lake's army. In 1827, owing to a disputed succession, Bhurtpore was again besieged and reduced by Lord Combermere.

The Jats exercise in their impatience a fine quality of individual freedom. This, together with the fact that they are neither truculent nor turbulent, makes them one of the best types of the well-disciplined soldiers. They are capable of enduring great fatigue and privation. The Sikh Jats are ethnically not different from the Hindu Jats, but their martial religion has helped to toughen their already hardy nature. Though not so sturdy as some of the races of Northern India, they are excellent fighting material.

THE DOGRAS.

The Dogras are among the best fighting material to be found in India. They hail from the district of that name between the Chenab and the Sutlej. They may be designated "Rajput Highlanders." They have a keener sense of national pride and a higher feeling of national integrity than their compatriots of the plains, while the more bracing climate of their hills has given them finer physiques and cleaner complexions than the latter. The pioneer Rajputs, who were forced through discord at home to seek a home in these hills, and founded the various Dogra principalities, became independent with the dissolution of the Moghul Empire, but subsequently became subject to the Sikhs under Ranjit Singh. Gulab Singh, whom the latter made Rajah of Jammu, and who after his death became ruler of Kashmir, was a Dogra by race. The Dogras serve chiefly in the infantry. There are now 11 squadrons and 56 companies of this caste in the Army.

The Dogra is a shy, reserved man, with considerable strength of character. "He may not be so brilliant as the Pathan, nor so tenacious and subtle as the Gurkha, but he has a high idea of honour, is very self-respecting, and makes a capital soldier." His physique is not so fine as that of the Pathan or Sikh. They have long been known as brave and faithful soldiers, and loyalty to their salt is with them as the breath of their nostrils. Though shy and reserved, they are not lacking in force of character. They fling aside their caste prejudice when on active service. More solid than brilliant, they are full of quiet and resolute courage when face to face with danger.

The majority of the Dogra troops hail from Kangra—the best recruiting district in all India: law-abiding and well-behaved, steady and resolute though not showy of courage, their virtues shine forth in moments of peril, when they will face certain death with a calm determination to do before they die. They are keen sportsmen and very good with the rifle. Their bravery and loyalty were proved at the siege of Delhi during the Mutiny, and at the battle of Ahmed Khel in the Second Afghan War. The Second Sikh Infantry raised at Kangra in 1846, and consisting entirely of Dogras, ratified their loyalty by assisting to quell a rebellion of their countrymen during the Mutiny. Their military value had been recognised as early as 1849, when large numbers of them were enlisted in the Punjab Frontier Force.

THE BALUCHIS.

The Baluchis, or the Moslem clans inhabiting Baluchistan, claim Semitic descent and kinship with the founder of their religion. There appears to be no doubt that they are of Arab origin. They early settled in Persia as pastoral nomads, but their rapid increase in numbers led to their expulsion and subsequent settlement in the tract now called Baluchistan. Their obvious admixture of Persian blood and characteristics is the result of their sojourn in Persia during the progress of their emigration. They are very similar to the Pathans in racial characteristics. The Brahuīs, the other and the dominant race in Baluchistan, entered the country long after, and drove the Baluchis from the province of Khelat. The Khan of Khelat is a Brahuī.

The Baluchis are tall, imposing-looking men, with regular features. The Brahuīs are smaller than the Baluchis, with flatter features, and are an ancient Persian stock. Both races are Mahomedans, but not fanatical like the Pathans. The Baluchis have "the manly, frank, brave, strong nature of the Pathans, with a fund of patience" rendering them capable of enduring endless hardship; and "a fine dignified carriage and physique combined with a spirit of quick daring and sudden ferocity." Truthful, loyal and generous, they detest the servility, insolence, deceit and treachery characteristic of other tribes. In their homes they are very hospitable, but are rather lazy. Like the Pathans, their chief amusements are battle, murder and robbery. They are prone to quarrel and use their knives on each other on the slightest pretext. Their national weapons are a long knife, a sword and a shield. Like the Pathans, they are not overfond of the matchlock. This illustrates their readiness to face a foe on even terms—to engage in a hand-to-hand combat rather than to fire at him from a distance. They are fine horsemen and experts in horse and camel breeding.

There are as many as 52 Baluch tribes. The Baluchi regiments are recruited from both Brahuīs and Baluchis, and these have on service shown their value as fighting units. The latter are born knifers, a fact based upon the primitive blood-thirstiness of their nature. A marked trait of their character is their strong adherence to discipline. Add to this their good marksmanship, their fidelity and tractability—qualities which make them much prized as soldiers by British officers.

PUNJABI MUSSALMANS.

The term "Punjabi Mussalman" is used to describe the many minor fighting clans inhabiting the province such as the Ghakkars, Awans, Sials, Gujars, Tiwanas, Ahirs, etc. They are ethnically Aryo-Scythians, the descendants of Hindu converts to Islam, domiciled in the Land of the Five Rivers. They probably provide more soldiers for all branches of the Indian army than any of the races already dealt with. They make first-class soldiers, are easily disciplined, and are good marksmen. They naturally have the qualities of the Jats, Pathans, Rajputs, etc., from whom they are descended.

One of the results of Lord Kitchener's scheme of reorganising the heterogeneous forces of the Indian Empire into a compact and evenly distributed army, was the disbanding of all the Madras regiments. These were reconstituted as Punjab regiments consisting of Punjabi Mussalmans, Sikhs, Dogras, etc. A large number of Punjabi Mussalmans are recruited into the different cavalry regiments, but chiefly into the four regiments forming part of the famous frontier force. Among the tribes under this class from which recruits are drawn are the Awans of the south-west Punjab—a fine, well-built, brawny race who are splendid wrestlers. The Sials are another tribe, descendants of Rajput converts to Islam. The Tiwanas—whose head is the well-known Captain Malik Umar Hayat Khan of the Tiwana Lancers—are another tribe of Rajput origin, who supply numerous recruits both to the infantry and the cavalry. Some of the other Muslim clans of the Punjab who supply soldiers to the Indian army are the Ghakkars, an exceptionally fine race, proud, brave, high-spirited and self-respecting; the Gujars, hardy and well built, formerly the dominant people about the Peshawar border, and still retaining some of their old martial instincts; the Karrals, of the Hazara district, recent Rajput converts to Islam; the Julahas, criminal and turbulent, and notoriously hump-tious; and the Bhattis, a widely distributed tribe of Rajputs, tall, muscular, with refined features and well-bred ways.

Most of these clans are of Rajput, Jat, or Tartar descent. A large number of them are now with the Indian Contingent; and forming as they do the bulk of the personnel of the Punjab regiments, whose prowess is so well known, they may be trusted to give a very good account of themselves in the battlefield.

THE PATHANS.

The Mussalman tribes of mixed Indian, Afghan, and Scythian origin, inhabiting the countries round about Afghanistan and North-West India, and their descendants who have migrated to various parts are generally known as Pathans. They are of Aryo-Scythian or Turko-Iranian stock, and have been crossed and re-crossed by Tartar, Arab, Persian and other bloods. They however claim Jewish descent and call themselves *Beni-Israel* (children of Israel). The Mussalmans and Pathans of India furnish between them 68 squadrons of Cavalry and 250 companies of Infantry to the Indian Army. The cold climate and the hardy life of the mountains have preserved their virility. They are tall, stalwart, handsome fellows, usually with regular features and fair complexion, some of them with blue or grey eyes.

There are a great many of these tribes such as the Afridi, Waziri, Utman Khel, and Orakzai, all of Indian stock; the Muhammadzai, Shinwari, and Mohmund, who are of Afghan descent; the Bakhtiar and Shirani, of Scythian stock, the Baraich and Abdalli or Duranni, who are of pure Afghan stock; others of mixed Turkish and Afghan descent, besides the Ghilzai and Lodi tribes and the Suleman Khel, Ali Khel, etc., known as the Ibrahimzais.

Rude, untamed, independent and impatient of all restraint, there is no ordered government or central controlling authority among these tribes. They form so many warring commonwealths under their Khans. When not warring against one another, they are torn by internal feuds and disputes among themselves. The tribesmen are bigotted Sunnis, and obtain their livelihood by agricultural and pastoral pursuits, as wandering traders and as members of armed caravans.

As a soldier, the Pathan displays great dash and *elan*. Owing to his passionate nature, he is apt to lose his head, however, in the heat and excitement of battle. This leaves him at a disadvantage as compared with cooler headed troops, who are otherwise his inferior. In British service, he has generally proved himself a loyal and devoted soldier. It would be absurd, however, to expect ethical notions of right, not self-interest, guiding him—with whom robbery and murder are as the breath of his nostrils. But set against this is his grit and nerve, his just and manly pride in himself and his recklessness of his own life—qualities which betoken the true soldier.

FIGHTING CLANS OF SOUTH INDIA

The bulk of the fighting material that at present constitutes the Indian Army is drawn from the Sikhs, Pathans, Gurkhas, Rajputs, Jats, Dogras, Mahrattas, Brahmins of the Punjab and U. P., and Punjabi Mussalmans. In view of the demand for more troops for the front, recruiting was recently ordered in Northern India for raising ten special companies. The selection for them was confined to certain Hindu tribes of the Punjab and Frontier Province, such as Harrois and Kharrois, Sais, Gondals, Beehas, Kakaries, Mahijals and Punjabi Brahmins. A table issued from Army Headquarters shows the extent to which recruits were enlisted from the various fighting classes up to the close of February to meet the demand for extra numbers. It is as follows:—

Class.	Annual Average Enlistment.	Number en- listed from 1st Sept. 1914 to 1st Feb. 1915. (Six months.)
Pathans	1,503	3,627
Punjabi Mussulmans	2,068	8,010
Sikhs	3,149	6,113
Dogras	602	1,748
Jats	740	2,406
Hindustani Mussulmans	724	1,143
Rajputs, Brahmins, Ahirs (U. P.)	995	2,092
Rajputana Classes	1,270	3,431
Dekhani Mahrattas	439	686
Konkani Mahrattas	175	665
Dekhani Mussulmans	350	460
Madrasis	889	2,842
Gurkhas	1,571	4,141
Garwalis	113	682
Total	14,892	38,046

The table shows that Southern India does not particularly appeal to the imagination of the military authorities for recruitment purposes. The number of Madrasis that are in the ranks of the Sepoy Regiments numbering 162,000 is only 9,000. A good number of these are Mahomedans; while a large proportion of the rest are described as "low castes," but are particularly efficient units of Sapper Companies.

The abolition of the faulty, antiquated system of distribution in isolated units was effected during the Commander-in-Chiefship of Lord Kitchener by the mustering out of a number of Madras Regiments, their places being taken by Punjabi or Gurkha Regiments recruited for service in the South. Southern India, all the same, offers a distinct and virgin field of recruitment from which

large drafts of the right sort of men could be drawn to strengthen the Indian Army. That the descendants of men who under Stringer Lawrence, Clive and Eyre Coote, under Harris and Wellesley, had borne a conspicuous part in establishing the British Empire in India should, under proper training, make efficient soldiers, goes without saying. Estimating them at their lowest value, they could be placed on a par with second-rate European troops like the Spanish and Portuguese—the soldierly rank assigned them by the Duke of Wellington. That their old spirit is not dead and is still aflame was evidenced by the gallant defence made by the Madras Sapper Company at the Malakand not many years ago.

A bird's-eye view of some of the more important fighting castes of South India, with distinct military histories and traditions of their own, that may be put to use in the present crisis, will prove useful. The castes which still retain their ability to bear arms, and are recognised as such by the military authorities, being eligible for admission into existing regiments, include the Kallars, Maravars, Vellalas and Pallis, all Tamil-speaking clans; the Nairs, Tiyyas and Moplahs of Malabar; the Kapus or Reddi, Telagas or Telingas and Tottinjans, all Telugu-speaking castes; the Labbais or Sonagars, mixed Muhammadans of the Coromandel Coast, with unmistakable Arab blood in their veins; the Bedars, a Canarese-speaking tribe of hunters and agriculturists, and the Bantas of South India. There is space only to have a peep at the martial capabilities and past records of some of these.

The Kallars and Maravars are the hereditary robbers of the four southern districts of the Presidency. They live by crime actively or by blackmail negatively. The Kallars number over half-a-million, and even at the present day are much given to theft and dacoity. Their religion, their burial and marriage ceremonies, testify to their aboriginal descent. In the marriage ceremony, the chief event is the commission of a theft, and no girl could marry a man who had not committed some crime. In 1891, the Maravars numbered three hundred thousand men. They are believed to have been one of the first of the Dravidian tribes that penetrated to the south of the peninsula. In former days, they were a fierce and turbulent race noted for their military prowess. At one time they were masters temporarily of the Pandya Kingdom, and later

their armies actively helped Tirumal Naik, the famous ruler of Madura. As a means of keeping them in check and making them turn from their evil ways, a suggestion was made to the Madras Government some twenty years ago—in response to their inquiry as to the best means of weaning these anxiety-working tribes from their predatory habits—that regiments of them should be formed under their own hereditary chiefs. The proposal, however, for certain reasons was not carried into effect.

A typical Muhammadan fighting clan of the South are the Moplahs. A leading London weekly described them some years ago as "probably braver than the very bravest of the white races." They obtained their reputation for bravery from the prevalent impression that they inherited a strong strain of Arab blood from their fathers, but as has been indicated by the experiments of Mr. F. Fawcett—no mean authority—whatever foreign blood they had, has been eliminated long ago. The marvellous psychic effect of Islam on its uncivilised converts is well known. As was pointed out by Mr. Fawcett in an official report several years ago: "During the Soudan war we had unmistakable evidence of the extraordinary influence which Islamism has on the lower and uncivilised races. What made the immortal 'Fuzzy-Wuzzy' of Kipling's ballad such a 'first-rate

fighting man?' Really nothing but the effect of Islam on his receptive nature. It is a creed which as if by magic turns the submissive into heroes." This is the secret of Moplah fanaticism, and the resultant outrages which have recurrently disturbed the peace of the district since the British occupation.

The Nairs are, as they have been designated in one of the newest of new books relating to the present War, "the Kshathriyas of Southern India." The Tiyyas, or toddy-tappers of Malabar, are of very good physique and should prove excellent material for making soldiers. The Coorgs are closely akin to the Nairs ethnically. The Reddis number about two millions and a half. They held a predominant position in the early centuries of the Christian era, and still possess great physical virility. The Pallis are a numerous class who were once largely employed as soldiers. So were the Labbais in days gone by famous as cavalry men. The Bedars gave a good account of themselves in the Mysorean wars against the British. Most of these tribes have converted their swords into ploughshares; but if the history and achievements of their forbears are any criterion, they should with the necessary training make themselves efficient troops on the battlefield.

THE INDIAN TROOPS IN FRANCE

HIS MAJESTY THE KING.

"I look to all my Indian soldiers to uphold the Izzat of the British Raj against an aggressive and relentless enemy. I know with what readiness my brave loyal Indian soldiers are prepared to fulfil this sacred trust shoulder to shoulder with their comrades from all parts of the Empire. Rest assured that you will always be in my thoughts and prayers. I bid you go forward and add fresh lustre to the glorious achievements and noble traditions of courage and chivalry of my Indian Army whose honour and fame is in your hands."

SIR JOHN FRENCH.

"One of the outstanding features of this, as of every action fought by the Indian Corps, is the stirring record of the comradeship in arms which exists between British and Indian soldiers. . . . The Indian troops have fought with utmost steadfastness and gallantry whenever they have been called upon. . . . At their own particular request, they have taken their turn in the trenches and performed most useful and valuable service."

LORD HALDANE.

"Indian soldiers were fighting for the liberties of humanity as much as we ourselves. India had freely given her lives and treasure in humanity's great cause; hence things could not be left as they were. We had been thrown together in this mighty struggle and had been made to realize our oneness, so producing relations between India and England which did not exist before. One victory would be a victory for the Empire as a whole and could not fail to raise it to a higher level."



INDIANS ADVANCING TO BATTLE TAKING ADVANTAGE OF EVERY INCH OF COVER.

T. P's Journ l.

THE RESPONSE OF INDIA TO THE EMPIRE'S CALL: TYPES OF NATIVE OFFICERS



COMMANDANT, BIKANIR CAMEL CORPS.



COMMANDANT, HOLKAR LANCERS.



COMMANDANT, NABHA LANCERS.

"Sporting and Dramatic News."

RECIPROCITY WITH THE COLONIES

BY DR. SATISH CHANDRA BANERJI, M.A., LL.D.

RECIPROCITY with the Colonies is a topic of paramount importance to which very rightly at the last Session of the Indian National Congress considerable attention was devoted. The United Provinces Congress Committee has submitted a representation on the subject to the Government of India. It behoves every Indian citizen to give careful thought to this question.

My own feeling about the matter now is of a mixed character. I do not for a moment doubt what the ideal we should strive for should be. The great European war most people now understand to be a conflict between two opposing ideals of citizenship. The Prussian statesman believes, in the words of Prince Von Bülow, that "members of different nationalities, with different language and customs, and with an intellectual life of a different kind, cannot live side by side in one state without succumbing to the temptation of each trying to force his own nationality on the other." The British statesman, on the other hand, is coming to hold, says Professor Sadler, "that it is possible for members of different nationalities, varying even in language and still more in temperament and in social tradition, to live side by side under one flag, proud of their common citizenship, eager in its defence, mutually respectful each of the other's convictions, and working out by discussion and experiment a fuller and freer conception of national or Imperial well-being." We all hope that the war will end in the triumph of the liberalising forces of civilization over the cult of Might and Power and that the narrow and unjust Prussian ideal will be killed for ever. May we not then hope that the problem will be solved in future very much as Indians wish and aspire?

I do not blink for one moment the practical difficulties. They are immense and H. E. the Viceroy has suggested a compromise. Nobody will deny the truism that something is better than nothing. But compromise in a matter like this always reminds me of Bishop Blougram's Apology:—

"The common problem, yours, mine, every
[one's,

Is not to fancy what were fair in life
Provided it could be,—but, finding first
What may be, then find how to make it


[fair

Up to our means—a very different thing."

Theoretically I do not care for the second best. But practical politics mean concessions and I quite realise that, if the self-governing colonies do not admit freely men from the mother-country, they are not likely to concede to the Indian an unrestricted right of emigration. It is also easy to understand that, if we agree to send only a limited number of our men under prescribed conditions to these colonies, they may admit them. But will that secure to us all that we are fairly entitled to? What has embittered feelings very much in the past is the differential treatment accorded to the Indian. Other Orientals are treated better. Being a member of the British Empire is apparently a disqualification. I do not wish to speak of retaliation, but, in my humble opinion, no so-called reciprocity will be worth anything if the colonist be not taught to respect the golden rule and to realise that the Indian's country is not for him to exploit at his sweet will. I have every hope that since out of evil cometh good, one beneficial result of this war will be that racial antagonism will to a large extent die out, and the white man will recognise that the brown or black man who has fought side by side with him and shed his blood without stint does not deserve to be and cannot be despised. The time is coming for the adjustment of our differences in a true statesman-like spirit, which will not divorce morality from politics and which will steer clear not only of all petty selfish prejudices, but also of all narrow shortsighted and degrading considerations. A fair settlement is all that we ask for. I do not wish to cry for the moon. The way, however, in which quite recently the House of Lords dealt with the Proclamation for the establishment of an Executive Council in the United Provinces has been an eye-opener to many of us who were disposed to think optimistically and take professions at their face value.

THE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS

BY PROFESSOR E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

 THE Scandinavian Kingdoms form an interesting study for those who are engaged in trying to discover the meaning of the term nationality. The peoples of Denmark, Norway and Sweden belong to the same branch of the Indo-European stock; their languages are closely connected; geographically they are near to one another, two of them occupying what would seem to be intended by nature to be a political whole; they profess the same form of religious belief; they have been at times united under one monarch, and yet they have all of them persisted in developing distinct nationalities of their own and in refusing to be joined with the others in a single Scandinavian state. Though now of but secondary importance as European powers, partly because of their "particularism," they have at times played a very prominent part in the history of Europe, and the internal history of them all is of interest to the student. It is impossible in a brief sketch, such as this article must be, to attempt even to outline their history. All that can be done is to refer to the most outstanding events in their connection with the rest of Europe, and to try to explain their present standing.

When they first appear in history it is as the home of the dreaded Northmen whose attacks on Western Europe in the ninth and tenth centuries threatened to destroy its civilisation. From being mere raiders the Northmen became settlers and exercised immense influence on the history of the countries where they settled. England was conquered by the "Danes;" at the mouth of every important French river there was a colony of Northmen; Ireland, the north of Scotland and the Scottish islands came under their sway. It was only in the 13th century that Scotland regained the Hebrides and not till after the middle of the 15th century that she recovered the Orkneys and the Shetlands. In their adventurous voyages the Vikings colonised Iceland and Greenland and even reached the shores of the mainland of North America. Russian history begins with the appearance of Rurik and his Varangians who probably came from Sweden, and under their leadership Constantinople itself was attacked. But for the settlement of the Northmen in Normandy the history of both

France and England would have been very different, and it was the Normans who drove the Saracens out of Sicily and created the kingdom of Naples.

Part of the restlessness of the Vikings appears to have been due to the action of Harold Haarfager who in 832 founded the kingdom of Norway by defeating the independent kings or chiefs. His successors carried on his work, and his descendants sat on the throne of Norway till the fourteenth century. One of them, Olaf by name, introduced Christianity into Norway about 1000 A.D. Another, named Eric, married the daughter of Alexander III. of Scotland and was the father of the little "Maid of Norway," who for four years was nominally Queen of Scotland. Edward I. in order to unite England and Scotland arranged for her marriage with the future Edward II., but her early death while on her way from Norway to Scotland frustrated this plan and led to the hostility between England and Scotland which lasted for three centuries. In 1319 the line of Harold Haarfager became extinct and the throne of Norway passed to Magnus Erikson, the king of Sweden. Magnus transferred it to his son Hakon, the husband of Margaret the Queen of Denmark. After his death Margaret succeeded in 1397 in bringing about the Union of Kalmar by which all the three Scandinavian kingdoms were united under her rule. From that date till 1814 Norway followed the fortunes of Denmark. It was practically a Danish province, and Danish is still used in Norway by most writers as the literary language.

The first monarch of real importance in the history of Denmark is Gorm, the great-grandfather of Canute or Knut the Great. Gorm drove out a Swedish dynasty and tried to stop the growth of Christianity. He came into collision with Henry the Fowler who became king of Germany in 918, and Denmark was more or less a fief of the German Empire till the end of the twelfth century. Canute, whose doings on the seashore are so familiar to every schoolboy, and who finally established Christianity in Denmark in the beginning of the eleventh century, conquered England and Norway, and it looked for a time as if the west of Europe might be

come a great Anglo-Scandinavian power. After his death, however, his empire fell to pieces. His namesake Canute VI. supported his father-in-law Henry the Lion, Duke of Saxony, against the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, and in 1182 Denmark renounced its dependence on Germany. His sister was Ingeborg, the wife of the great French king Philip Augustus, whose divorce of her brought him into serious conflict with the great Pope Innocent III. Canute made the dukes of Mecklenburg and Pomerania his vassals and conquered Holstein. His successor Valdemar II. made Denmark for a time the leading power in northern Europe but he was defeated in 1237 in the battle of Bornhövede and lost his Baltic empire. In the latter half of the fourteenth century Valdemar IV. seized the island of Gothland and plundered the great Hanseatic emporium Wisby. This involved him in a disastrous war with the Hanseatic League in which the League came out victorious. It was Valdemar's daughter Margaret who brought about the Union of Kalmar in 1397.

There is little that is noteworthy in the history of Sweden before that date. Christianity was longer of being established there than in the other Scandinavian states. The nobles tried to prevent the kings from obtaining real power, and it was in consequence of the attempt of King Albert of the Folkungar dynasty to weaken the power of the nobles that the Swedes offered the crown to Queen Margaret. It may be noted that both in Denmark and in Sweden, where the monarchy was originally at least nominally elective, a great part of their later internal history is occupied with the struggle for power between the monarchy and the dominant nobles. In Norway on the other hand where the kingship was hereditary the nobility was of no importance, and Norway is now one of the most democratic countries in the world. The Swedes did not long continue satisfied with the new arrangement, and remained quiet only when they were governed by native viceroys. From 1470 to 1520 they were governed by regents of the name of Sture, brave and enlightened statesmen. Sten Sture, the elder, founded the University of Upsala and introduced printing into Sweden. In 1497 John II. of Denmark entered Stockholm and endeavoured to secure the submission of Sweden, but Sten Sture returned to Stockholm in 1502 and the Swedish revolt continued till 1520. In that year Christian II. who was determined to crush all opposition massacred all the leading men of Sweden—the notorious Bloodbath of Stockholm—but the Swedes rose against him, headed

by Gustavus Vasa, the young son of one of his victims. At the same time his arbitrary measures produced a revolt in Denmark. He was driven from the throne and was succeeded by his uncle Frederick. Gustavus Vasa was chosen king of Sweden and the monarchy was made hereditary in his family. By the Recess of Malmö peace was made with Denmark, but Denmark retained the island of Gothland and the southern provinces of Sweden, thus commanding both sides of the Sound. The Reformation soon spread to Sweden. Gustavus Vasa became a Protestant and by the middle of the sixteenth century Sweden had become Lutheran.

The house of Vasa produced a number of remarkable monarchs, and during the three centuries that it occupied the throne Sweden reached the height of its power. For a short time, in fact, during the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden may be said to have been the leading power in Europe. Gustavus Adolphus is best known as the champion of German Protestantism in the Thirty Years War. His intervention in 1630 when the Emperor and the Roman Catholic cause were everywhere victorious turned the tide. His victory over Tilly at Breitenfeld in 1631 laid Germany at his feet and saved Protestantism. His untimely death at the battle of Lützen next year was a calamity probably for Germany as well as for Sweden. But before entering into the Thirty Years War Gustavus had fought with Denmark, Russia and Poland, and had succeeded in shutting out Russia from the Baltic by the annexation of Ingermanland, and had compelled Poland to cede Livonia and East Prussia temporarily. After the death of Gustavus his policy was continued by the chancellor Oxenstierna, and when the Peace of Westphalia was made in 1648 Sweden received a large part of Pomerania, and the Bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, thus commanding the mouths of the Oder, the Elbe and the Weser. Gustavus left as his successor an infant daughter who grew up to be the remarkable if eccentric Queen Christina. She abdicated in 1654 on becoming a Roman Catholic and was succeeded by her cousin Charles X. who tried to make the Baltic more completely a Swedish lake than it was. He so far succeeded that he compelled Denmark to give up the southern provinces of Sweden, and forced Poland to cede definitively Livonia and Earthonia by the treaty of Oliva in 1660.

In the great game that Louis XIV. played during the second half of the seventeenth century

Sweden was one of the powers whose friendship Louis courted for the purpose of harassing his German enemies on their eastern frontiers. The alliance with France led Charles XI. into a war with Brandenburg in 1675, and the defeat of the Swedes by the Great Elector at Fehrbellin in that year was an indication at once of the decadence of Sweden and of the growing power of Brandenburg-Prussia. When Charles XI. died in 1697 leaving as his successor the young Charles XII. the jealous neighbours of Sweden thought that the time had come for revenge and, a league was formed between Poland, of which the Elector of Saxony had become king, Peter the Great of Russia, and Denmark, to attack the youthful monarch. Charles XII. showed, however, that he possessed in full measure the soldierly qualities of his house, and he soon succeeded in defeating his enemies in turn. Though a great soldier Charles XII. was lacking in statesmanship and he allowed his hatred of Augustus of Saxony to make him neglect, till too late, his more dangerous Russian enemy. While Charles was pursuing Augustus from Poland into Saxony Peter was busy conquering the Swedish Baltic provinces and was laying the foundations of Petrograd in territory that still belonged to Sweden. When, too late, Charles struck at Moscow he was defeated in the decisive battle of Pultawa in 1709. Nine years later he was killed while fighting in Norway. When peace was finally made, Sweden lost Verden and Bremen to Hanover, part of Pomerania to Prussia, and the provinces of Ingermanland, Esthonia, Livonia and Carelia to Russia, and sank to the position of a second-class power in Europe. Finland remained to Sweden for nearly a century longer but in 1809, as a result of the re-arrangement of the map of Europe made by Napoleon and the Czar Alexander I. at Tilsit, it was conquered by Russia, and its annexation was confirmed by the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

The history of Denmark during those centuries must be dealt with very shortly. It is interesting to notice that the beginning of the famous Schleswig-Holstein question appears early in this period. Queen Margaret to conciliate the Count of Holstein—a county of the German Empire—granted him as a fief the Duchy of Schleswig. In 1448 when the royal house became extinct in the direct line, the Danes offered the throne to Adolf, Count of Holstein and Duke of Schleswig. He declined the crown but recommended the election of his nephew Christian of Oldenburg who was on the female side connected with the Danish

royal family. Christian was duly elected and is the ancestor of the present royal house of Denmark. On Adolf's death without children Christian wished to acquire Schleswig and Holstein. The estates of these provinces ultimately in 1460 agreed to accept him as their ruler on condition that Schleswig and Holstein should remain united and that they should in future have the right to elect any member of the family and not necessarily the king of Denmark. Soon afterwards Holstein was made a Duchy by the Emperor Frederick III.

The Reformation in Denmark seems to have been carried through mainly with the object of securing the possessions of the Church for the nobility. During the period which followed, the power of the monarchy declined and Denmark was governed for over a century by a selfish oligarchy. The disastrous war with Sweden which ended in 1660 with the loss of all the Swedish provinces led to an outburst of national feeling which resulted in the overthrow of the power of the nobles and the establishment of a hereditary absolute monarchy. During these hundred and fifty years the most important event in the external history of Denmark was the attempt made by Christian IV. to intervene on the Protestant side in the second stage of the Thirty Years War. Tilly and Wallenstein proved too strong for him. Holstein, Schleswig and Jutland were overrun, and he was compelled by the Treaty of Lübeck 1629 to promise to abstain from interfering in German affairs as the price of recovering his lost provinces.

During the eighteenth century Denmark took little part in foreign affairs, but important reforms at home were carried out. In 1800, however, she joined the northern Armed Neutrality formed by Russia against Great Britain. This was treated as a declaration of war and led to the bombardment of Copenhagen by the British fleet under Parker and Nelson in 1801. Less excusable was the second bombardment which took place in 1807. Napoleon and Alexander had discussed at Tilsit the idea of compelling the neutral powers to join them against Great Britain. Napoleon especially counted on the use of the Danish fleet and was prepared if necessary to coerce Denmark to join France and Russia. To forestall him the British Government demanded that Denmark should make an alliance with Great Britain and should hand over the fleet for safe custody till the end of the war. The Danes refused and the second bombardment took place. The fleet was handed over but not unnatu-

rally the Danes became the allies of Napoleon till near the end of his career. Before that came Denmark was to lose still more of its power.

In 1810 Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, was chosen by the Swedes as their Crown Prince. Bernadotte had risen from the ranks and had as a private served in India and been taken prisoner at Negapatam. When Napoleon's Russian expedition failed, Bernadotte and Sweden throw in their lot with the allies. As a reward for his services he was allowed to take Norway from Denmark and to annex it to Sweden as compensation for the cession of Finland to Russia. The Norwegians were much opposed to this change. They declared themselves independent, drew up a constitution and elected a king of their own. Ultimately, however, they were persuaded to submit. Bernadotte accepted the constitution, and the Norwegians then proceeded to elect him as their king.

The Treaty of Kiel (January 1814) by which Denmark had ceded Norway to Sweden and Heligoland to Britain provided that as compensation she should receive Swedish Pomerania and the island of Rügen, but this arrangement was not confirmed at Vienna. These places went to Prussia. Denmark received only the little Duchy of Lauenburg and a money payment. The settlement at Vienna, therefore, had as its result the serious diminution of the territory of Denmark, the uneasy union of Norway and Sweden, and the complete abandonment by Sweden of all possessions outside the Scandinavian peninsula, and of all influence in Germany. The union of the democratic Norway with the aristocratic Sweden did not prove a success. Bernadotte who became king under the title of Charles XIV. in 1818, and who is the ancestor of the present Swedish royal family, was personally popular in Norway, but the desire for independence steadily increased. Sometimes the kings yielded to the Norwegian demands and sometimes they resisted them, but steadily the Norwegians sought to make the union a merely nominal one. The end of it came in 1905 when the two countries wisely agreed to separate without fighting. The Norwegians elected as their king Prince Charles of Denmark, who is married to a sister of King George, and he ascended the throne with the title of Haakon VII.

While during the century that has followed the battle of Waterloo, Sweden has had little to do with foreign affairs, Denmark unfortunately for herself has been brought into too close contact with German politics owing to the Schleswig-Holstein

question. Into that question it is impossible to go fully. It is said, indeed, that there was only one person who ever understood all its details. But the main points can be easily grasped. Holstein was a German Duchy and was a member of the German Bund or Confederation. Schleswig was Danish but had become largely Germanised especially in the south, and the two Duchies demanded that they should never be separated. The Danes in the middle of the nineteenth century were anxious to draw the union between Denmark and the Duchies tighter while the Duchies were anxious to be separated from Denmark altogether. In 1846 as the direct male line of the Oldenburg dynasty seemed likely to become extinct Christian VIII. issued a document in which he declared "the whole Danish State to be indivisible and to be heritable by females as well as males." This was very annoying to the Duke of Augustenburg who was the next heir in the male line, and also to the Duchies which had hoped to become a separate independent German state. Christian VIII. died in 1848. Europe was in a restless state at the time. National feeling in Germany had at last found expression, and though his son Frederick VII. issued a liberal constitution the Duchies rose and appealed to the German "Parliament" at Frankfort which enthusiastically espoused their cause. Thenceforward Schleswig-Holstein became a subject on which opinions as to German liberty and the like might be safely expressed even in Germany. For a time there was war, but at last in 1852 a Conference was held at London and a compromise was come to. The integrity of Denmark was guaranteed by the Great Powers, and the succession was promised to Christian of Glücksburg the heir in the female line. The Duke of Augustenburg surrendered his claims for a money payment. King Frederick granted a liberal constitution to his subjects and Schleswig and Holstein were allowed to keep their separate Estates or Parliaments.

During the next ten years national feeling ran high. A strong Danish party wished to see Schleswig, which was largely Danish, practically absorbed in Denmark, while the German party agitated for the separation of the Duchies from Denmark altogether. In 1863 King Frederick VII. granted a new constitution which separated Schleswig from Holstein and united it to Denmark. The German Confederation protested and threatened war. Just at this juncture Frederick died, and the new King Christian was compelled to accept the new constitution. Taking


advantage of the situation Frederick of Augustenburg revived the claim to the Duchies which his father had resigned at London. The Bund or Confederation took up his cause and Hanoverian and Saxon troops entered the Duchies. Bismarck who had recently become Prime Minister of Prussia, and who had been busily engaged in flouting the Prussian Parliament and in strengthening the Prussian army, now intervened with his tortuous policy for Prussian aggrandisement. He had no desire to see Schleswig-Holstein formed into an independent German state under the Duke of Augustenburg, for it would almost certainly side with Austria against Prussia. He came forward therefore as the champion of the Treaty made at London in 1852 and persuaded Austria in an evil hour for herself to join him. Bismarck's policy during this period is a marvel of unscrupulous ingenuity. We have not space to follow it out in all its twistings. He succeeded in isolating Denmark and after a war in 1864 compelled her to cede Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg to Prussia and Austria. He repudiated the claims of the Duke of Augustenburg, and, when he was ready, picked

a quarrel with Austria, defeated her and secured the whole of the plunder for Prussia. Northern Schleswig which is Danish was, it was understood, to be given back to Denmark, but this was never done, and Prussia's treatment of the Danes in Schleswig has been on a par with her treatment of the Poles in Prussian Poland. To trample down the conquered seems to be the only policy which commends itself to the Prussian official mind. It has been stated lately on good authority that Germany has actually had the audacity to complain to the Danish Government of the way in which the history of Denmark is taught in Danish Schools as giving a wrong impression of the history of the treatment of Denmark by Germany!

At present the Scandinavian countries are wisely preserving a strict neutrality. Sweden from fear of Russia was at the beginning of the war said to be pro-German, but it is difficult to believe that any of the smaller states of Europe, which value their national existence, can be anxious to see the triumph of Prussian militarism and the supremacy of Germany in Western Europe.

I. SAINT JNANA SAMBANDAR'

BY MR. M. S. POORNALINGAM PILLAI, B.A., L.T.

ARIOUSLY known as Dravida Sisu, Aludaya Pillaiyar and Tiru Jnana Sambandar, our Saint had his life full of miracles from start to finish. He was a destroyer of heresy and a great Saiva revivalist. In the short span of sixteen summers, this youthful prodigy was a recipient of many a divine gift and wrought many a miracle. In thirteen years he composed and sang three hundred and eighty-four hymns, remarkable for their *puns*, and embodied the essence of the Vedas and the Agamas in scintillating Tamil verses. A dogmatist in religion, he asserted his pride of birth, and as a Brahmin, he piqued at his wonderful Tamil proficiency, which forms the burden of every one of his songs.

Professor Sundaram Pillai, M.A., was the first to draw the modern world's attention to the hymns of this saint by his masterly contributions to the *Madras Christian College Magazine* on the subject of his Age. Since then the name of the sage has been on the lips of every English-knowing Tamilian, though his ponderous tome is

seldom turned despite its accredited authority and sanctity.

Among the gifts of God to the saint may be mentioned the gift of song in his third year, the golden symbols bearing the holy pentagram inscribed thereon, the pearly litter, the canopy of pearls, and gold coins in a time of drought and famine.

The miracles wrought by him were many and various, but the following deserve to be marked out for special reference: the Vedaranyam miracle, the Madura miracle, the Tollicherry miracle, the Othur miracle, the Mailapur miracle, and the final Nallur miracle. All these took place in his religious peregrinations, in company with a famous lulist and a wonderful woman vocalist, the former applying the saint's extempore verses to the instrument and the latter singing them with her finest throat.

Four journeys were made by our saint—the first in the vicinity of his birthplace Shyali* on

* This is the first of a series of articles on the well-known Saints of the Tamil land.

* It bore eleven other names as Brahmapuram, Venupuram, Pugali, Venguru, Thonipuram, Puntharai, Sirapuram, Paravam, Shanbai, Kochoivayam, and Kalumalam.

his father Sivapatha-hiruthayar's shoulders; the second on foot on the north banks of the Cauveri; the third in the Pandyan kingdom; and the fourth in the Thondai naḍu—and the whole was wound up with the sacred wedding ceremony and its brilliant sequel. Of these four journeys the last two were remarkable. The prevalence of Jainism in Madura and the consequent fall of Siva worship were eyesores to the Queen Mangai-karasi and the minister Kulacchirai. These were devising the ways and means of reclaiming the king Kun-Pandya to the Saiva fold, when the fame of the youthful prodigy reached their ears. They hastened to invite him to the ancient city of Madura and did him all honours. The Jains were in a fix, and the whole Jain population of the eight hills assembled in the city to witness the disputation between Jainism and Saivism. The Jains were Pharisees and extreme formalists. They counted upon their *mantrams* and charms for their triumph when they failed in their incendiary act on the Saint's pavilion. Both disputants made the body of the king as the seat of their operations. A burning fever overtook the king which the Jains with all their charms and peacock feathers could not mitigate, but which the fervour of the 'Ashes Song' in no time removed. Eight thousand Jains were impaled as a result of this defeat. Siva worship reared its head again. The king was reconverted, and the wavering people were reassured in their faith. The Tellicherry miracle was a victory over the Buddhists there, as was the Mailapur miracle which was the most wonderful, in that a blooming girl came out of her ashes preserved in an urn, and the elegy sung on the occasion is the most pathetic of the whole series. In his journeys he met many sages and formed friendships with them. At Thiru Arur the ever-memorable meeting of the saint with Appar occurred, and their subsequent relationship was a dear one of father and son. They visited a few shrines together and then parted. The other friends were pious devotees as Thiru Nila Nakkur, Thiru Murugar, and Sirutthondar. Their mutual regard and reverence were great, and they enjoyed each other's society for a time. At Nullur the marriage of the saint was solemnised with the daughter of Nambiandar Nambi, and the wedded life ended as soon as it began. The bride and bridegroom entered the local temple and were seen no more. Thus his brief span of life, which 'buckled in a sum of age,' terminated, as it opened, in a miracle.

Each of the nearly four centuries of his hymns

is a garland of rhythmical praises to Siva, whose different names, forms and attributes are strung together in various permutations and combinations. It is very seldom that a lyric of his is devoid of Jaina or Sakkar denunciations, the crushing of Ravana, the destruction of Thiripura, the swallowing of poison, etc., etc. In this connection Mr. Virabadra Mudaliar's papers on the prosody of Lord Sambanda may be read with profit and pleasure.

In some of his *Devarams* Jnana Sambandar refers to Kochengannan, the red-eyed Ohola king, who lived in the third quarter of the sixth century, and who was known as a builder and consecrator of Siva temples. A century must have elapsed for the canonisation of the royal devotee and for the reverence with which he is mentioned in the lyrics of Saint Sambanda. The saint, it is alleged and amply demonstrated by the application of the prosodial test, was a contemporary of Thirumangai Alvar, and this fact leads us to the conclusion that the age of the saint was about the close of the seventh century. But in Professor Sundaram Pillai's opinion 'the opening of the seventh century is the latest period that can be assigned to Sambandha.' Mr. Venkayya refers to the destruction of Vatapi in A.D. 642 and to the freshness of this event in the memory of the people when the saint met Sirutthonda at Thiruchengattamgudi and assigns Tirujnana Sambhanda to the middle of the seventh century.

Two things call for remark in the narration of the story of the saint's life. The child prodigy lisped in numbers. Plato's doctrine of the Reminiscence alone can account for the prodigious knowledge and effusions of the child saint. As to the marvels wrought by him, modern science is at a standstill, though certain feeble attempts have been made to explain away the phenomena with the help of spiritualism. A rational explanation of them will be forthcoming with the rapid advance of the variousologies that have discovered more marvels in the present day than in the age of miracles. The miraculous element of the story, which baffles the imagination of the modern scientific thinker, is inexplicable at present except on the basis of divine grace and power which, to a selfless devotee, flow as freely and copiously as the Indus or the Ganges into the Indian ocean. In the words of Lotze, "the complete conditioning causes of the miracle will be found in God and Nature together and in that external action and reaction between them which, perhaps although not ordered simply according to general laws, is not void of regulative principles."

This vital, as opposed to a mechanical, constitution of nature, together with the conception of nature as complete in itself—as if it were dis severed from the Divine Energy—shows how a miracle may take place without any disturbance elsewhere of the constancy of nature."

The hymns of our saint form the first three collections or *thirumurai*s of Adunkalmurai, as compiled by the Tamil Vyasa, Nambi Andar Nambi. They are 'models of pure and elevated diction, generally earnest and touching, but always melodious and well-tuned. Most of them appear to have been uttered impromptu; and all of them, being lyrical, are set to music. The original tunes are now mostly forgotten. The melody of some of the hymns therefore may not be fully realised. Taken all in all, Sambandha must be reckoned as a great genuine Tamil poet, certainly the greatest in the lyrical department.' The two hymns sung at or about Kuttalam and that in honour of Tinnevely show how the poet was a close observer of nature. A picture of the southern sanatorium is presented in the former. The waterfall, the jasmine, *shembaga* and the wealth of flowers that blossom there, the jack fruit, the dancing of the monkey on its branches, the kuruntha tree, the wild honey in profusion, the hum of the bees, the beautiful plumage of the peacock, the tuneful note of the *cuyil*, the scented breeze, the hunters' glee—all these and more are depicted in the two lyrics. As regards Tinnevelley (Tiru-nel-veli), the saint's impression of the townsmen seems to have been indeed very high. He speaks of them as wealthy people. At the time of his visit it was probably a tiny town surrounded by shady groves, and the only attractive place in its neighbourhood was the famous bathing ghat known as Sindupundurai.

In his *Milestones of Tamil Literature* Professor Sundaram Pillai has the following estimate of the saintly poet: "He is decidedly the greatest and most popular of the Tamil *Rishis*. There is scarcely a Saiva temple in the Tamil country where his image is not daily worshipped. In most of them, special annual feasts are held in his name, when the leading events of his life are dramatically represented for the instruction of the masses. All classes of poets, from his colleagues Appar and Sundarar to the latest of Purana writers, from the purest of Vedantists like Tattavarayan to the most uncompromising dualists like Arul Nandi Sivacharya, from the iconoclastic Kannudaiya Vallalar to the Vira Saiva Sivaprakasa, unite in invoking his spiritual aid as the common cement of their literary labours." The poet and sage

Ramalinga Swamigal had such an admiration for the Pumpavai miracle that he verily believed that it was practicable and longed for the day when he could do the like. Thus among the Saiva community of South India, no name is held in greater veneration than that of Tirujnana Sambandha.

As regards the hundred metrical varieties occurring in Sambandha's hymns, and thereby enriching Tamil poetry in general, we let Mr. Virabadra Mudaliar, B.A., B.L., an expert on the subject, speak in his strain of exuberance: "We have simply to open the inimitable pages of our Lord Sambandha to understand the profuse richness of Tamil poetry during this Tamilic period. We are able to point out nearly one hundred metrical varieties in his poetry. Was there ever we ask, any poet, ancient or modern, in any language on the face of the earth not excluding Sanskrit, who has so spontaneously and with such an insatiable thirst for the praise of his Divine Father in Heaven, sung on that same subject so many interesting varieties of lovely verses as nearly one hundred varieties not based on small distinctions such as are recognised in Sanskrit but differing as widely as any two metres of a language—leaving of course out of consideration the verses which are alleged to have perished?: In fact Lord Sambandha has overflowed the Tamil land with an enormous number of metres of unknown varieties and of unsurpassed perfection, accuracy and beauty. We do not read Sambandha's poetry, because it does not contain any vain philosophic disquisitions or learned commentaries on Vedanta, or an ingenious attempt at an Advaitic or Siddhantic interpretation of the Gita, or even a faithful record of the much advanced metaphysical experiences of the author. Sambandha's poetry shines far above those cloudly controversial regions like the lofty towering peak in Goldsmith's poetry. . . . We, philosophers, find nothing in him to quote, not even so much as we find in Appar's, nor is there any allusion to any subtle point of theology such as we are sure to find even in the dullest Tamil poet."

"He who, amid the sound of the music of the Vedic chaunt, performs the Mystic Dance,
He who bears the battle-axe,
The thief who steals away my mind, so that the white bracelets ranged upon my arms fall off,

While the spacious and beautiful grove on the shore and the glades scatter radiance,
Hath come to Piramapuram on which the crescent moon rests. Our Lord is He! Is it not so?"

The Congress: A National Movement*

BY BABU AM

For a long time the claim of the Congress to be styled a national movement was, of course, if not quite seriously, disputed by critics. Some derisively called it a "Bengal Congress," although the Bengalees had no more hand in it, either in its inception or in its development, than the Parsis, the Christians, or the Madrasis, and the British would have been simply proud to accept a doubtful complement paid to them if it were the barest truth; others, professing a little more catholicity, dubbed it as a "Hindu Congress," as if the Hindus were altogether a negligible factor in the country and that such a disqualification was sufficient for its disparagement in the estimation of the public and to discredit its weight and importance with the authorities; while the more adroit among these critics denounced it as an organization of the "Educated Minority" in the country, as though it were an established fact, that the recognized political associations in all other civilized countries were, as a rule, composed of their illiterate majority and that where such an element failed an organization, however strong in its moral, intellectual or material equipment, must stand forfeited of all claims to be recognized as a national institution. The truth, however, seems to be, that early exiled from the healthy public life of their own native land, trained in all the ways of a dominant race in a subject country and nurtured in the traditional legends of their racial superiority, the Anglo-Indian community naturally received a rude shock at the first appearance of the new spirit and taxed all the resources of their ingenuity to nip it in the bud. These captious critics, to whom history apparently furnished no logic of facts, had the catching expression of "microscopic minority" coined for them by a high authority, while they themselves were

to invent a few more smart phrases to discredit the movement in this country and to influence public opinion in England. No abuse was heaped too strong and no criticism too severe or the condemnation of the new movement whose aims and objects were regarded by the public as a threatened invasion of their civil rights and privileges rendered inexcusable by long enjoyment, but also as a disturbance of the established order of things permanently sanctioned by custom and tradition of the country. "Dreamers," "impotent sedition-mongers,"

"self-constituted delegates," "disappointed place seekers," "pretentious body of irresponsible agitators," and many other elegant phrases of the same description were among the weapons offensive and defensive forged by these critics to dispose of the members of the Congress and to discredit the movement. But if the movement was really as nothing, it is rather difficult to appreciate why so much powder and shot were simply wasted for destroying such a tiny gnat and why such severe attention was paid to a handful of political somnambulists. It was, however, not found possible to sustain these reckless charges for a long time, as quite a different verdict was pronounced at an early stage both here as well as in England establishing the claim of the Congress to represent the enlightened views of the Indian public without distinction of caste or creed, colour or race. It may be perfectly true, that all the communities in the country have not equally distinguished themselves on the Congress platform; but it can hardly be denied that the better minds of every community have been throughout in perfect agreement with its aims and objects and have never dissented from its programme.

It has already been pointed out, that so far back as 1890, when the Congress was but five years old, the Government of Lord Lansdowne recognised that the Congress was regarded as

* From the writer's forthcoming book on "Indian National Evolution" to be published shortly by Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.

representing the advanced Liberal Party in India as distinguished from the powerful body of conservative opinion ruling the country. Since then Lord Morley, Mr. Justin McCarthy, Sir William Hunter, Sir Charles Dilke, Lord Randolph Churchill, Mr. Herbert (now Lord) Gladstone, Sir Richard Garth and many other distinguished and responsible authorities have from time to time admitted the character of the Congress as a national assembly fairly representative of the Indian people. Speaking in 1890 Sir Charles Dilke said:—"Argument upon the matter is to be desired, but not invectives, and there is so much reason to think that the Congress movement really represents the cultivated intelligence of the country that those who ridicule it do harm to the imperial interests of Great Britain, bitterly wounding and alienating men who are justified in what they do, who do it in reasonable and cautious form and who ought to be conciliated by being met half-way." There is the testimony of Mr. Herbert Gladstone who said that, "the national movement in India, which has taken a purely constitutional and loyal form and which expresses through the Congress the legitimate hopes and requirements of the people, is one with which I sincerely sympathise. I should consider it a high honour in however a small degree to be associated with it." Sir William Hunter, than whom there is hardly a more experienced Indian authority, observed:—"The Indian National Congress is essentially the child of British rule, the product of our schools and universities. We had created and fostered the aspirations which animated the Congress, and it would be both childish and unwise to refuse now to those aspirations both our sympathy and respectful consideration." Lord Morley speaking from his place in the House of Commons as the responsible minister for India said:—"I do not say that I agree with all that the Congress desires; but speaking broadly of what I conceive to be at the bottom of the Congress I do not see why any one who takes a cool and steady view of Indian Government should be frightened." The Right Hon. Sir Richard Garth, Kt., Chief Justice of Bengal, writing in 1895 said:—"It seems to me that

so far from being in any way objectionable, the Congress affords an open, honest and loyal means of making the views and wishes of the most intelligent section of the Indian people known to the Government." And above all His Imperial Majesty George V. was himself pleased to accord his recognition to the Congress by accepting its message of welcome and thanking it for its loyal devotion to the Throne on the occasion of his auspicious visit to India in 1911. It seems unnecessary to multiply further evidence in support of the official as well as the popular verdict in favour of the claim and character of the Congress as a representative institution. It may simply be added for the satisfaction of those who may still continue to be at heart dissatisfied with that verdict, on the ostensible ground of the mass of the population not being in evidence on the Congress platform, that the "microscopic minority" in every country, whether in the East or in the West, have always represented the telescopic majority, and that nowhere have the inarticulate mass of a people spoken except through the mouth of the educated few. Then as regards the old, orthodox and favourite argument of the Anglo-Indian community based upon the assumed differences between the classes and the masses it were well to remember, that even in the seventies of the century that has just closed over us John Bright had to complain that the Parliament of Great Britain was not after all a "transparent mirror of public opinion," and that the Labour Party in that Parliament representing the masses of England is only of very recent growth and as yet furnishes but a wholly inadequate representation of its immense working population. It may be no mere disputatious argument to advance, that if the Mother of Parliaments, which in its origin was no more than an assembly of a handful of "wise men," and which even in its later developments was composed of a hereditary aristocracy and a few hundred chosen representatives drawn only from the ranks of advanced enlightened communities, could have constitutionally governed for centuries the destinies of the greatest empire in the world, it would hardly be decent to put forward any pretext based

upon a question of class interest to dispute the representative character of an advisory political organization without any legal origin or statutory constitution. Nobody contends that the Congress is a "transparent mirror of public opinion" in India; but if it is not so transparent as the Parliament of Great Britain, or the Chamber of the French Republic, is it really very much more opaque than the Duma of Russia, or even the Reichstag of Germany, as far as reflection of public opinion is concerned? If there has been no objection to the National League representing the cause of Ireland for more than half-a-century, with one of its four divisions in open arms against it, the title of the Indian National Congress, with only one of its many communities partially standing aside as neutral and passively watching the fight, may not be deemed so extravagant as to form a point in a serious discussion on such general issues as are involved in this great movement. The Congress is not even thirty years old, and if within this short period it has established its claim to be the mouthpiece of the teeming millions of India even in some respects and has never done anything to forfeit their tacit confidence, then nobody need fairly grudge its just and legitimate aspiration to be called a National Assembly.

It is certainly not the essential condition of a national institution that every member or even every community of the nation should be actively associated with it; for if it were so, even the most thoroughly representative of Parliaments would cease to be a national institution. An institution is quite national if it possesses in the main a representative character, embodies the national spirit and is guided by aims and objects of national advancement. It may sometimes fail to be a transparent mirror of public opinion, particularly where such opinion is in such a nebulous condition as to be unable to cast a distinct reflection even on the most powerful camera; but it is always expected faithfully to reflect an interest which once it is presented in proper shade and light at once catches the attention of the public and attracts the national sympathies and energies towards its

attainment. In this way national organizations have everywhere preceded national awakening in its widest sense, and sometimes a single individual gifted with extraordinary vision has revolutionized an entire national life. Nations are not born but made, and the highest evolution of national, like individual life is attained through a slow and laborious process of organized efforts. Judged by the above test the claim of the Congress to be recognized as a national assembly could hardly be disputed by any but the most perverse critics. If Mr. Disraeli, Lord Hartington, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, Mr. Balfour and other millionaires could represent the labouring classes of England, because a percentage of them were able to exercise their forced votes in their favour, then surely men like Dadabhai Naoroji, W. C. Bonnerjee, Pherozeshah Mehta, Surendranath Bannerjee, Rashbehary Ghose, Kashinath Trimbuk Telang, Budruddin Tyabjee, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Abdul Russul, Ananda Charloo, Krishnaaswami Iyer, Sirdar Diyal Singh, Lajpat Rai, Madan Mohan Malaviya, Muzur-ul Haque, Husain Imam and many others, men all born of the people, might well have been depended on to voice forth more faithfully the wants and wishes of the voiceless millions of India than the editors of the *Pioneer*, the *Civil and Military Gazette*, the *Englishman*, the *Statesman* and other birds of passage of nearly the same feather, whatever their pretensions may be in the position which they occupy in the administration of the country.

Among the Indians themselves the Parsis as a community were no doubt for a short time wavering in their attitude; but the great personality of Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji and the firm attitude of men like Sir Pherozeshah Mehta and Mr. Dinshaw Edulji Wacha settled the question, and that important community bodily cast in their lot with the national movement. The Eurasian community, having its stronghold in Madras, did not fail to realise its true position during the Ilbert Bill controversy and having wisely stood aloof, at least in the Southern Presidency, from that controversy it heartily joined the new movement under the leadership of Messrs. W. S. White, and

W. S. Gantz; while Captain Banon from the Punjab, Mr. Howard, the President of the Anglo-Indian and Eurasian Association at Allahabad, Captain Hearsay from Dehra-Dun, Mr. Crowley of the firm of Messrs. Crowley & Co., and Mr. George Yule from Bengal with many other Europeans and Eurasians of note from time to time joined and strengthened the rank and file of the organisation.

An artificial and mischievous manœuvre was engineered by a section of the Anglo-Indian Press which with the active support of a shortsighted bureaucracy doted on the mean policy of *Divide-et-Impera* and captured the great but backward Mahomedan community who were taught the unworthy tactics of lying in wait for the other communities to draw the chestnuts out of the fire, so that they might comfortably munch them without burning their fingers in the fire of official displeasure. At the first Congress in 1885 Mr. Rahimtullah Sayani was the only Mahomedan present, and the Anglo-Indian Press of the time complacently remarked that even he did not take any active part in its deliberations. But it would appear from the subsequent presidential addresses of both Mr. Budruddin Tyabji and Mr. Rahimtullah Sayani that they were heart and soul with the movement from the very beginning. In the Second Congress the number of Mussalman Delegates was 33, while at Madras in 1887 their number rose to 81. At the fourth Congress at Allahabad the Mahomedan Delegates numbered 221 out of a total of 1,248 Delegates. Thus the interest of that great community in the national movement, in spite of the siren song of the Anglo-Indian press, was steadily and rapidly increasing. But since the Allahabad Congress when the attitude of the authorities became more pronounced the Mahomedans began to secede, and their "approved loyalty," which some silly persons on the other side irreverently called "oily," was turned into a "valuable asset" by certain designing people.

It is no doubt true, that in the fifth session of the Congress held at Bombay the number, though not the percentage, of Mahomedan delegates rose higher than at the preceding

session at Allahabad. There were 254 Mahomedans out of a total of 1,889 Delegates. But it should be remembered that it was a historic session commonly known as the "Bradlaugh Congress" which, as has been already pointed out, attracted an unusually large number of people, including even officials in secret, to see and hear the great champion of democracy, and that a large majority of these Mahomedan Delegates attended from the Bombay Presidency where the Mahomedan community, though numerically smaller, has been until very recently ever more progressive than in the rest of India. It is however worthy of notice that two of the Mahomedan Delegates at this very Congress, one hailing from the Punjab and the other from the United-Provinces, made no secret of their racial opposition to the Congress proposal as regards the reform of the Legislative Councils. Besides, the remarkable dearth of Mahomedan delegates at all subsequent sessions of the Congress, until the last session held at Karachi, conclusively proved that the official reporter of 1889 was quite premature in his forecast of growing Mahomedan interest in the national movement. It is doubtless true that advanced Mussalmans like Mr. Abdul Russul in Bengal and Mr. Comuruddin Tyabji in Bombay, not to speak of stalwarts like Messrs. Budruddin Tyabji and Rahimtullah Sayani, never swerved from their allegiance to the national cause; but the bulk of the Moslem community were led astray and successfully kept back for a long time from joining the movement. Several unfortunate incidents also contributed towards widening the breach between the two main communities in the country, while their separation from a common platform served not a little to make the relation between them more and more strained under the continuous fanning of the Anglo-Indian community who scarcely made any secret of their policy of playing one against the other. But the game has happily been almost played out. The intelligent Islamic community, with the rapid growth of education, are gradually awaking to a consciousness of the ignominious position into which they have been led and are steadily pressing forward to take their legitimate place by the side of

the other communities, fighting shoulder to shoulder for the attainment of their common destiny.

The Moslem League, whatever the object of its founders and the attitude of some of its early members may have been, has, in the dispensation of an inscrutable providence, done for the Mahomedans what the Congress had done much earlier for the other communities in the country. It has slowly imbued them with the broad vision of national interests and inoculated them with ideas of common rights and responsibilities, when at the last Session of the League they openly embraced the common political faith so long preached by the Congress. If men like Mazur-ul Haque, Hassan Imam, Wazir Hussain, Ibrahim Rahimtullah, Jinnah, Mahomed Ali and last but not least the present Aga Khan could have appeared in the eighties and joined hands with Messrs. Budrud-din Tyahji, Rahimtullah Sayani and Abdul Russul the history of the Indian National Congress might now have been written in an altogether different style. But it must be said to the credit of the Mahomedan community, that although for a long time they kept themselves aloof from the Congress, they never could be persuaded to start any active movement to counteract its progress. The fictitious counter-agitation was kept up only by the selfish Anglo-Indian press at the instance of a narrow and nervous bureaucracy in the ostensible name of the Mahomedan community, and there is sufficient reason to believe that intelligent Mahomedans were not wanting who saw through the bluff and thoroughly understood in whose interest the agitation was really engineered, though from prudential considerations they were unable openly to denounce it. The great sage of Aligarh, who during his life time was the recognized leader of the community, did not fail frankly to acknowledge that the Hindus and the Mussalmans in India "were like the two eyes of a fair maiden" and that "it was impossible to injure the one without affecting the other," and, he might well have added, without disfiguring the maiden altogether. It is worthy of remark, that the Congress from an early stage took care to safeguard the interests of all minorities and with a view to remove all

possible misapprehension from the minds of the Mussalmans distinctly provided, that when any community in the Congress being in the minority should appear to be even nearly unanimous in opposing any motion such motion shall be dropped. Besides, it is an incontrovertible fact that the Congress has up to this time never passed a single resolution advocating the interests of any particular community, or of the classes against those of the masses. On the contrary it has throughout recognized that the future destiny of the country largely, if not solely, depended upon the harmonious co-operation of all the communities and the amelioration of the condition of its huge working and agricultural population, and has as such persistently urged for educational facilities for the backward communities in the country. Education is the only leaven that can leaven the whole lump and the Congress has never failed to realize that as education advances the apparently heterogeneous elements in the country are bound to coalesce and solidify into a homogeneous mass.

In the meantime, however, in the midst of the perennial controversy that raged between a jealous bureaucracy and a distrustful public and in spite of the opposition, calumny and misrepresentation which never ceased to dog its footsteps the movement went on gaining strength both in volume and intensity every year. In its majestic march it swept away all obstacles presented by differences of creed and caste, of language as well as of customs, habits and manners, and the process of unification went on apace rounding off those local and racial angularities which stood in its course and bearing down those treacherous shoals and bars which the opposition fondly hoped would wreck it one day. It has passed through many trials and tribulations and tided over many dangers and difficulties which lay in its way. Many were the "candid friends" who in season and out of season raised their warning voice against what they deemed its "mad career"; but the collective wisdom of a renovated people under the guidance of a higher inspiration has gone on working in the sacred cause with stout heart and sincere devotion. The acuteness of the opposition has now nearly

died out; while with the falsification of the ominous prophecies of the "birds of evil presage" their shrieks are heard growing fainter and fainter as the day of the inevitable seems to be approaching. It is no less an authority than Sir William Hunter who has borne his ungrudging testimony to the fact that "the Indian National Congress has outlived the early period of misrepresentation; it has shewn that it belongs to no single section of the population"; while it may be fairly remarked, that Hindus, Mussalmans, Parsis and Christians, all have been proud of the honour of occupying the presidential chair of the Congress as the highest distinction in the gift of the country and its people.

It is, however, still argued, that although the Congress may be a national assembly it can never hope to attain its chimerical object in view—the establishment of an Indian nationality; for there are said to be four essential conditions for the constitution of a nation, in that there must be a common race, common government, common tongue and a common religion, and that India being a congeries of people lacking in all these essential elements can never hope to evolve a nationality out of a Babel of confusion into which she has been hopelessly plunged by centuries of revolutions and changes unparalleled in the history of the world. These are all plausible arguments no doubt; but not one of them will probably stand the test of careful examination in the light of modern political evolution of the world. The race question, strictly speaking, is more or less of a larger or smaller formula of ethnological classification. The modern Indians are broadly divided into two races, the Hindus and Mussalmans, the former having larger and sharper sub-divisions than the latter; but both descended from a common *Aryan* stock, more agnatic in their relation to each other than most of the European peoples. The Hindu anthropology indeed traces them to one common descent within the legendary period of ancient history. However that may be, the question is, does this difference in races constitute a permanent bar to their so uniting as to constitute a political unit or nation? Without going far back into antiquity it may be

confidently asked, is there any nation of modern times which is not composed of distinct and different racial units which have been welded together by forces other than those of mere ethnology? The Picts and the Scots, the Angles and the Saxons, the Celts and the Welsh are all incorporated in the great British nation, although they one and all still retain distinctive racial characteristics of their own to no small extent. In Germany the Teutons and the Slavs, the Prussians, the Bavarians and the Silesians, and in that curious Dual-Monarchy of Austria-Hungary, the Germans, the Magyars or Hungarians, Czechs, Poles, Slavs, Serbs, Croats and Roumanians are all distinct racial units consolidated into a national federation of no ordinary solidarity and strength. So it is idle to contend that racial differences in India can by themselves stand as an insuperable difficulty in the way of the Hindus and Mussalmans, with an intermediate link of the Parsis between them, coalescing and forming a political unit. The process has already started and it is only a question of time when they will become completely fused into a consolidated national organization.

As regards religion, it must be admitted, that although in the early stages of social evolution and even down to the end of the middle ages religious faiths constituted the strongest cement of national unity, a mighty change has taken place in modern times all over the world. With increased facilities of communication, both through land and water, and ever increasing expansion of trade and commerce a rapid diffusion of people throughout the world has taken place converting every civilised country into a congeries of people, each with distinct habits, manners and religious beliefs. The ancient territorial distributions on the basis of religious ties have all been broken up and with the advancement of science and development of materialism a nation has received the connotation more of a political organization than of a religious confederacy. Freedom of conscience and religious toleration have revolutionized every country and every society, and different and even divergent faiths no longer count against the forces of a national evolution. Even education has been seculariz-

ed throughout the world, and the spirit of Martin Luther's reform, which first effected in Europe a permanent divorce of Education from Religion, has permeated the entire civilisation of the world and considerably weakened, if not completely shattered, the influence of the church and clergy of every creed in moulding and shaping the destinies of nations. A nation therefore is now more a political unit than a religious organization. The differences between the *Shaivas* and *Vaishnavas* and *Saktas*, or for the matter of that between the Hindus and the Buddhists, the Jains and the Sikhs are not more marked than those between the Catholics and the Protestants, the Methodists and the Greek Church. Then are there not Unitarians and Positivists, Free-thinkers and Non-conformists side by side with members of the Orthodox Churches in every country in Europe and America forming integral parts of one, indivisible nation? No man now cares more about the religious convictions of his neighbour than of his private character. It is now the public life of a people, as reflected in public interest and public opinion, combined with a singleness of purpose and unity of aims and objects, which constitutes the national spirit. It is not at all suggested that other moral and spiritual qualities do not go far to exalt the individual as well as the nation; but these higher attributes are not among the inseparable accidents of national life.

Common government and common language no doubt form the basis of a national organisation, the one furnishing articulate expression of common interests and common sentiments and the other translating them into action. In India the English language has become the *lingua franca* of the educated community whose number is daily increasing and whose ideas, thoughts and actions are purveyed to the rest of the population through the medium of a number of allied dialects all derived from a common source, and it is no more difficult for the people of the different provinces to understand each other than it is for the mass of the Irish, Scotch and Welshman to understand the Englishman. A common script for all the Indian languages would undoubtedly facilitate, as it has facilitated in the case of

Europe, the study of the various dialects in this country; but even if that is not possible the difficulty may be solved by introducing some of these languages in an interprovincial curriculum of the departments or universities at certain stage of the educational system of the different provinces. The Bengalee, the Hindustani, the Mahratta and the Telugu are the most important among the spoken and written languages in the country and if these are taught in our schools or colleges of all the provinces the linguistic connection between the different races may be satisfactorily established.

As regards government, the Indian peoples occupy a still more favourable position. For the evolution of a national life it is absolutely necessary that the entire population of a geographical unit, whatever differences there may be in their racial, linguistic or religious composition, should be under one and the same rule. Where this condition fails there is disintegration even among people belonging to the same race, speaking the same language and professing the same faith, and each integral section under a separate rule forms a distinct nation. As has already been said, a nation in the modern acceptance of the term is now a political unit formed out of community of interest, community of laws and community of rights and responsibilities. These are all created and conserved under the guidance and inspiration of a force which is generated by a common rule whether it be monarchical, democratic or republican in its character. There was a time when the Bengalees, the Punjabis and the Mahrattas formed distinct nations, as the Prussians, the Bavarians and the Silesians on the one hand and the Bohemians, the Magyars, the Czechs and the Slavs on the other did at one and no distant time. But being brought under the same rule, subject to the same laws and invested with the same rights and responsibilities, emanating from the same fountainhead, the Bengalee, the Punjabi and the Mahratta are now but different factors of one and the same political unit or nation. Thus the Parsi or the Mahomedan in India no longer owes any temporal allegiance to the Shah of Persia or the Sultan of Turkey, nor do they belong to

the Persian or Turkish nation. They are both incorporated in the body of the vast Indian Nation. The Government is the cement of a national organization and without such a cement even the most advanced countries in the world would fall to pieces like a house of cards. It is quite true, that under the existing conditions it is simply impossible for India to aim at sovereign independence and yet maintain its nationalism; for no sooner such an attempt is made it must stand split up into its racial factors, the cement would be gone and the vast fabric of its national organization tumble down entirely broken up. There may be then a Bengalee, or a Punjabi, or a Mahratta State, but no longer an United-India, or an Indian Nation. For the higher evolution of such a nationality the Indian National Congress from the very beginning set up an ideal on the permanent basis of a great confederacy under a common rule such as was furnished by the paramount authority of Great Britain. The Congress certainly aims at freedom; but not at separation. On the contrary it is the freedom of the different members of a body which while they are perfectly free to discharge their respective functions independently are at the same time dependent upon one another for their vital existence as a whole, and which in their mutual relation imply no subjection, but enjoin equality and interdependence. It is in this conception that lies the true inwardness of Indian nationalism and it is this ideal which constitutes the just claim of the Indian National Congress to be styled a national movement. Lord

Hardinge's famous despatch of the 25th August 1911 gives a correct expression to the spirit of that movement and clearly indicates the only legitimate development of a permanent British rule in India. However much British diplomacy may turn and twist the plain terms of that important document to wriggle out of an inevitable situation, it is bound to work out its peaceful solution at first in the formation of a confederacy of autonomous units within the country and at the consummation, in the evolution of a larger, stronger and prouder unit, self-contained, self-adjusted, self-reliant, and standing side by side and co-operating with the other self-governing units of the Empire. Such a conception must no doubt take time to materialize itself; but it is by no means a fantastic dream. Besides, the world has always dreamt before its waking and evolved its sternest realities out of its wildest dreams. But even without indulging in dreams it is permissible to read the signs of time which in its onward and irresistible march is visibly arraying the moral forces of humanity for a thorough revision and re-adjustment of the destinies of the world from which India alone cannot be excluded. If the Philipinos in the Atlantic, the Poles in Central Europe, and even the Negroes of Liberia have succeeded in evolving their destinies as self-governing people, the claim of India for an equal partnership in the federation of the British Empire may be neither so extravagant, nor so remote and visionary as to be altogether beyond the range of practical politics.

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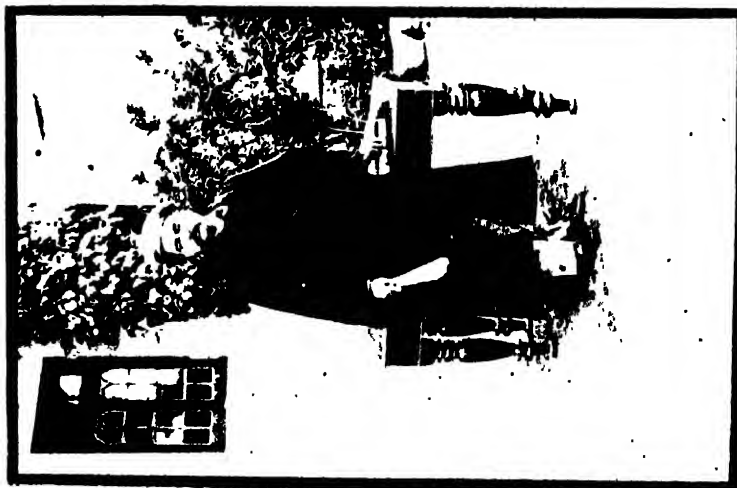


G. K. GOKHALE



G. K. GOKHALE.

Lying in State



G. K. GOKHALE.

In the Professor's Robes.

Reminiscences and Appreciations of Mr. Gokhale.

[In continuation of the numerous eulogies and appreciations of Mr. Gokhale which we published in the last issue of the *Indian Review*, we give below a further instalment of reminiscences from his well-known friends and admirers. The eulogies have been culled from the speeches and writings of a wide circle of Mr. Gokhale's illustrious contemporaries. A message from His Majesty the King-Emperor appropriately heads the list.—Editor, *The Indian Review*.]

H. M. THE KING EMPEROR.

The following telegram received from the Private Secretary to the Viceroy by the family of the late Mr. Gokhale :—

The Viceroy has been requested to convey on behalf of His Majesty the King-Emperor to the representative of the late Mr. Gokhale's family his Majesty's deep sympathy with them in their bereavement.

THE RT. HON. THE MARQUIS OF CREWE.

Lord Crewe said that he desired to pay a public tribute to the most distinguished of recent Indian moderate reformers, the late Mr. Gokhale. Mr. Gokhale was not only a man of great intellectual power and of the highest personal character, but he was capable of taking wide and generous views on public affairs. In the good sense of the word Mr. Gokhale was an opportunist. No doubt he dreamed dreams and saw visions, as most public men with high hopes and broad views did, but he was certainly one of those who knew how to "take occasion by the hand and make the bounds of freedom wider yet." It was on those lines he framed his political career and hoped for the future of India. *In the House of Lords*.

LORD CURZON.

Earl Curzon said he was glad to have an opportunity of joining the noble marquis Lord Crewe in the tribute he paid to that eminent Indian, Mr. Gokhale. For five or six years Mr. Gokhale was a member of the Imperial Legislative Council over which he presided, and was in constant opposition to his policy. In fact, he was the leader of the opposition, and in that capacity he (Lord Curzon) had often to suffer from the weight of Mr. Gokhale's blows. He had never met a man of any nationality more gifted with Parliamentary capacities. Mr. Gokhale would have obtained a position of distinction in any Parliament in the world, even in the British House of Commons. Widely as they differed, he had never failed to recognise either his abilities or his high character. It was a satisfaction to him to recall that when they last conferred, about a year and a half ago, on the question of Indians in South Africa, the subject which engaged their attention was one upon which they were both agreed. *In the House of Lords*.

DR. CLIFFORD.

A true servant not only of India, but of humanity who must take high rank amongst the leaders of the world to a better day, by reason of his magnificent self-sacrifice, his fine enthusiasm for righteousness and freedom and human well-being, and his patient and prolonged championship of the great causes upon which the advance of the world depended. *Message to Lord Reay who presided over the London Memorial Meeting*.

THE RT. HON. LORD REAY, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.

Mr. Gokhale's self-effacement, self-sacrifice, his unworldliness, his devotion to high aims, his patriotism, his desire to improve his fellow-countrymen and to elevate them, his strong support of English rule—all those virtues made them doubly sorry to have lost him. It had been the privilege of Bombay, and of the Hindu community in Bombay, that in recent years they had certainly given to India the most distinguished men that India had produced. He might give the names of Ranade, Telang and Gokhale. They were men of great learning—men whose object was to give to the British Government all the support they could give—and if India was to be well governed it was by the support of such men that certainly that object could be best served. It was always a pleasure to associate with them: they were, in the strictest sense of the word, perfect gentlemen. But they were also men of firm character. They were examples for future generation of Indians to follow, and especially, because they were deeply sensible of responsibility in the highest sense of the word, and never gave any advice which they were not prepared themselves to carry out. Words and deeds, in their view, were absolutely identical. They had in the late Mr. Gokhale the highest type of Indian culture, and that was very high type indeed. Looking back to the days when he was in India, he could say that the recollections which he prized the most were his friendly intercourse with men like Mr. Gokhale and Mr. Telang, and the valuable counsel and assistance that he received from them. *Speech at the Carlton Hall, London*.

MR. S. K. RATCLIFFE.

No modern man of Eastern race has realised more fully than Gokhale the spirit of the religion of service. His record covers thirty years of incessant devotion to an ideal. He had, as all his friends knew, a deep sense of the import of his work; but no man could have been more transparently selfless. If you thought of high-mindedness in public life, you thought of Gokhale. His quality was known and recognised of all.

What is his greatest gift and his highest glory? Not his public labours and political wisdom, great as those were. Not his fine intelligence, his knowledge and faculty of expression, or even the unwearied devotion that he gave to the causes with which he was identified. But the high and radiant spirit of the man behind the work. For the India of to-day and to-morrow the character of Gopal Krishna Gokhale is an everlasting possession.—*Evening Transcript*.

GENERAL SMUTS.

I learn with deep regret of the death of Mr. Gokhale. Please accept my sympathy at the loss of such an eminent statesman, who served his people and the Empire with much distinction.

MR. H. S. L. POLAK.

We in this country (South Africa) will bless and revere his memory for his invariable support of the struggle, for the collections that he was mainly instrumental in making for the maintenance of the struggle and the relief of distress, for his successful effort to procure the stoppage of indentured labour for South Africa, for even his unsuccessful attempt to obtain a cessation of the system of indentured recruitment in India (and he ever called upon his countrymen to take courage and inspiration from the failures of himself and his fellow-workers), for the repeal of the £3 tax, for his visit, at what personal sacrifice we may never know, to South Africa, and for the hundred other services, great and small, that he rendered to his countrymen here, to India, and to the Empire, with unstinting devotion. He was a man whom kings delighted to honour, whom lesser men revered, and whom his friends and intimates adored. He has gone from among us, but his memory is sweet and his spirit remains to guide us. The text that may be fittingly engraved in our hearts, when we nerve ourselves to take his noble example, surely is: "Well done, thou good and faithful servant!" For service was his very life, and he served well and faithfully.

How often have I seen him, the master of fine English, the mathematically-minded statesman, striding his room, not trusting to his natural gifts which everyone about him recognised, but narrowly examining every thought, every word, every phrase, until he had got it as near as possible to the precise expression of what his soul was urging him to say—and this because he was fearful lest, by some blunder either of omission or commission, he should render a disservice to the cause whose advocacy was so dear at heart to him.

Such rare courtesy and affability as he displayed in the many phases of social and public intercourse are characteristic of a nation that has made urbanity and hospitality a test of culture. *In the 'Indian Opinion.'*

MR. BAL GANGADHAR TILAK.

This is not a time for cheers. This is a time for shedding tears. This is a time for expressing sorrow for the irreparable loss which we have sustained by the death of Mr. Gokhale. This diamond of India, this jewel of Maharashtra, this prince of workers, is taking eternal rest on the funeral ground. Look at him and try to emulate him. Mr. Gokhale has passed away from our midst, after having satisfactorily performed his duty. Will any one of you come forward to take his place? Like a triumphant hero he is passing away, after having made his name immortal. Not only none of you here assembled, but no other citizen in all India will be able to give a satisfactory account in the other world of having done his duty to the Motherland. Up to this time very few have had the fortune of being able to render an account before God of having honestly done his true duty. I knew Mr. Gokhale from his youth. He was an ordinary and simple man in the beginning. He was not an Inamdar; he was not a Jahagirdar; he was not a Chief. He was an ordinary man like all of us here. He rose to such eminence by the sheer force of genius, ability and work. Mr. Gokhale is passing away from our midst, but he has left behind him much more. Every one of you ought to try to place his eyes where your eyes are, and to fill up the gap; and if you best to emulate him in this way, he will be in the next world. *Funeral Oration at arathi.*

MR. H. W. NEVINSON.

It would take a volume to express all the admiration I have felt for Mr. Gokhale. In a long and varied life I never met a statesman so broad-minded, far-seeing, and entirely sincere or a man who inspired greater personal affection and confidence. *Message to the London Memorial Meeting.*

THE HON. MR. P. D. PATTANI.

To-day's sun rises under deep gloom. The sad news from Poona is heart-rending. The passing away of Mr. Gokhale is an incalculable loss to country and also to Government. The great servant and son of India has gone away. No amount of sympathies from friends can render any consolation in this national bereavement. We can only weep together. *A message by wire on the day of Mr. Gokhale's death.*

Mr. Gokhale was the one Indian who was recognised by the whole country as its great son and servant. His non-sectarian activities, and his cosmopolitan sympathies, gave him the position of eminence which was his by common consent, and which fell to him the more surely because from his own innate modesty he was reluctant to accept it. Mr. Gokhale was loved of the people and trusted by the Government; whilst therefore they regarded his premature death as a national loss. I venture to believe that the Government view it as an Imperial loss, and consequently the grief which you feel is shared by the great officers of the Crown in this country. *Speech at Bombay.*

DR. SIR RAMAKRISHNA BHANDARKAR.

Along with political regeneration, Mr. Gokhale worked for the good of the people from social and moral points of view. His great desire was that the people of all castes and creeds should come together, and work in harmony for bringing the country to a prosperous condition. His power of eloquence both in his mother-tongue and in English was such that it had an immediate effect on his audience. His love of his country was equalled only by his humble and modest behaviour. His respect for elderly people was something unique. I once told him not to take the trouble of coming to my house, as he was not quite well, but that I would go to his house to meet him. He would not listen to me, but came to my house still. This little incident amply testifies to his great innate qualities. When I see such a great lover of our country endowed with exceptionally great qualities of head and heart, lying on this pyre, I cannot help saying that just as when a brilliant star which had been shining in the firmament for twenty-five years should suddenly drop down into the Ocean and there should be a sudden darkness, so also to-day is the condition of India owing to the death of Mr. Gokhale. One highly valued jewel has disappeared, and if we only try hard to continue the good work which he has begun we may be said to have repaid our obligations to some extent. *At the Crematorium.*

SIR BALCHANDRA KRISHNA, Kt.

The death has removed from amidst us and from amidst the whole country a very distinguished citizen.

His great work in the cause of his country has endeared him to everyone with whom he came in contact, either personally or through his disinterested labours, and the result of it we see in the telegrams of condolence coming to his people from His Majesty the King-Emperor and the Indian Princes and other equally high quarters. *Speech at Bombay.*

MRS. ANNIE BESANT.

Raise him a statue by all means, but not in carven marble, not in molten metal, will the statue of Gokhale be really raised in the lives of young men who emulate his virtue, in the service that they will render to the common motherland, in high ideals, in pure endeavour, in absolute devotion. It is you, and others like you that will make the statue perpetuate his memory throughout the years to come. Certainly raise it—it is right—but nearer and dearer to that selfless heart was the Society he founded to carry on his work. We remember he said that we must serve India by our failures, that others will serve her by their successes. There is no failure for the man who serves the motherland, for though outside the result may be little, the force is ever accumulated by every servant of the motherland, and that shall carry her to her appointed goal; and for one thing, I would ask you specially to help this young Society. It is because he demanded that every one who came into it should study before he acted, and should know before he spoke. Five years of silence he imposed on those who came to him before they might write or speak or try to guide their fellowmen, and there he showed his wisdom and the secret of his power, for he never spoke save with knowledge behind speaking, and those who try to emulate his example must also learn before they begin to teach.

When last I saw him at Poona, when for a few days he thought his life was to be lengthened, there were two matters that, he said, alone disturbed his thoughts when his mind was turned towards death. One was the Public Services Commission. "I am going," he said, "leaving my work half done." The other was the Society into which his life was poured, for as truly as any son has the life of his father within him, as truly as any child has the spirit of his father to guide him, so in this baby son of his, Mr. Gokhale's life is living to-day. In the work that it will do in the future it will be the spirit of Mr. Gokhale that will inspire it. So I would remind you that while you raise a statue to his public honour, do not forget what matters more, the hope that ever nestled warmly in his heart, that is nearest and dearest to those who imitate him, throwing away everything of this world and burning upon the altar of their country in sacrifice all that the world could give of joy and wealth, that they may pass into the sanctuary of your hearts as ever it was the image in his, and that as he looks across his motherland and watches the work that is growing, he may see his son carrying on his labours and know that in the work of the motherland he has not lived in vain. *At the Madras Memorial Meeting.*

THE REV. DR. EWING.

His fame was not only India-wide but extended to those in other lands who know and care for this country. There are, it may be, those present here, who in some particulars may have differed from him upon matters of greater or less import; but of this I am sure that we have all recognised his sincerity, his unselfish devotion and his great ability. India is justly proud of him. His place will be hard to fill, if indeed, it can be filled at all. *At a Memorial Meeting at Lahore.*

MR. WILLIAM HOSKEN.

The loss is not only irreparable to the Indian community but in Mr. Gokhale the world has lost a great citizen. *To the President of the Memorial Meeting in South Africa.*

SIR NARAYAN CHANDAVARKAR.

The death of such a man at this juncture is undoubtedly a calamity. Just now, when the huge wave of loyalty has passed and is still passing over the country, when England and India stand shoulder to shoulder, when India recognises in England a proper mistress, and England recognises a proper companion in India, when both England and India feel that they are destined by Providence to march together for the purpose of moulding the destinies of humanity, when England feels that India's loyalty ought to be rewarded in some substantial manner, when, at the close of the War, we count upon changes and England counts upon changes which will be of a highly beneficial character, not only to India and England, but to the whole of the British Empire, changes which will make every one of us feel that this connection between England and India is undoubtedly of a highly Providential character—at a time like this, when we require statesmanship of the highest order, whether in this country or in England, we have to raise our voice, see visions in their true perspective and march with the true, noble, loving and imperial spirit of the times, Mr. Gokhale was the one man of all men, on whom the country had counted. That he has been removed by the cruel hand of Death at such a juncture as this, is the greatest misfortune that has overtaken the country. For high and low, for the educated and the uneducated, the late Mr. Gokhale stands forth as the model of a man who knew that the only life worth living is the life which is dedicated to the service of his country, because it is the service of God. *Speech at Calicut.*

THE HON. MR. JUSTICE TAYABJI.

In the course of his speech at the Victoria Public Hall, Madras, Justice Tayabji referred to Mr. Gokhale as one of the rarest beings produced by any country or time, one who went through life with unsurpassed simplicity and modesty, whose presence inspired love and trust, whose life was so pure, whose character was so totally unselfish that no one can refer to him except with respectful admiration. His intellect was so clear that those who disagreed with him had the utmost difficulty in justifying their opinion, and some times failed, perhaps, in convincing even themselves who, when he stood forth as the representative of this vast country, whether at the foot of the throne of the Emperor or in the midst of men in power in an unsympathetic self-governing colony, in the midst of men sanguine in the correctness of views, whose error he was sent to demonstrate, commanded by his mere personality, unadorned by external symbols of authority, a deference not unlike that which may be claimed by kings, and inspired in the minds of his expectant countrymen, a serene confidence that he would be accorded a place worthy of this country wherever he went—even in that assemblage of which it has been said—

"There is

One great society alone on earth;

The noble living and the noble dead."

At the Madras Meeting.

PANDIT BISHEN NARAYAN DAR.

I mourn with you all the loss of the most selfless patriot, sagacious statesman and brilliant leader of new India. The nation has lost its loftiest spirit and Government its wisest councillor in Mr. Gokhale. May his noble example guide us through the critical times ahead. *Message to the Allahabad Memorial Meeting.*

NAWAB ABDUL MAJID.

In the death of Mr. Gokhale, India has suffered an irreparable loss and I do not think it will be very easy to replace a statesman like him. I had the honour of working with him for some time in the Imperial Council and I can say that there was no statesman of such large-minded views as I found Mr. Gokhale. Every question that he approached, he approached from the Indian point of view and not from a sectarian point of view. Every matter that he brought forward, he brought with the perfect assurance and with the sincere belief that it was for the good of the country. *At the Allahabad Meeting.*

DR. RASH BEHARI GHOSE.

An ideal leader, he never gave to his own Province what was meant for the whole country and we in Bengal in particular should cherish his memory with affection and reverence. For he was a strenuous fighter and we shall always remember with deep gratitude the bold stand made by him against the Partition of Bengal. Nor shall we ever forget his touching farewell to us at the last meeting of the Imperial Council in Calcutta.

This is not the place to dwell, on the private grief of his friends, the agony of personal bereavement at the loss of one whom we loved so well and with whom we have striven and worked for years. I will only say in the words of the poet—

'His memory long will live alone
In all our hearts, as mournful light
That broods above the fallen sun
And dwells in heaven half the night.'
Bande Mataram.

Speech at Calcutta.

THE HON. MR. LYONS.

* * He (Mr. Gokhale) was a great man and a great patriot and I am sorry to be deprived of the opportunity of testifying by my presence at the meeting to the admiration and esteem in which I held him. *Letter to Dr. Ghose.*

LALA HANSRAJ.

He was a lover of his country to a remarkable degree. His ability was such that, whatever the situation, he could grasp it at once. Day and night he devoted to attaining his ideal. What struck him above all in Mr. Gokhale was that no one could sit by Mr. Gokhale and feel that he was in the presence of a stranger. Everyone realised that Mr. Gokhale had sympathy with him and that he was a man who always did his duty. Among Mr. Gokhale's achievements he (the speaker) set down the establishment of the Servants of India Society as the greatest. Not only did he labour himself but he was instrumental in securing noble-minded men who served the country on an allowance of Rs. 30 a month. He who could, by his influence, bring forward such men, was a truly great man himself. In his opinion the greatest success of a man lay in this that he should be able to leave behind him men to continue his work. In this Mr. Gokhale achieved great success. And this was an even greater work than what he himself did. The work which he accomplished in South Africa was of great value. For 18 years he worked in the Fergusson College, which itself was a model of self-sacrifice which had on its staff men like Principal Paranjpye. Mr. Gokhale did not only do that work but devoted his whole life to the service of this country. *At the Lahore Meeting.*

THE HON. SIR JOHN HEATON.

He was one of the most eminent of all the graduates of this University. He has served one of its colleges, has been a member of this Senate, and has worked unsparingly in the cause of education. The influence and the usefulness of a University depend mainly on the graduates it furnishes to its country and to the world; and specially on those who either advance learning or use learning for the benefit of their country and others than of themselves. Mr. Gokhale was in a high degree one of the latter. He did not value his scholarship and his attainments for the personal prestige they brought him; he only valued them in so far as they equipped him to work for the welfare of India. In his life and work he was always earnest, modest and singularly faithful to his ideals. He attained to an eminence in life and character which has enriched the spirit of our University and endeared him to all who like himself sought the welfare of this great country. *At the Bombay Senate.*

DR. SATISH CHANDRA BANNERJEE.

The blow is so sudden and so terrible, the loss so stupendous and so crushing that I feel almost paralysed. Whether I try to think of Gopal Krishna Gokhale as a private individual with his ineffable charm of personality or as a public man, the Servant of India with his consecrated and dedicated life, my heart sinks with a sense of blank desolation and can only wail forth. We shall not see his like again. While yet in the prime of life, with both of his hands full of work the call came for him to cross the bar and from the top of Fame's ladder he stepped to the sky. But the passing of Mr. Gokhale is a national disaster, a calamity to the country, the extent and magnitude of which I dare not attempt to gauge. He was a revered leader of us all. He was the beloved friend of many of us. I only hope and pray that from his place in the Choir Invisible, he will be able to shape the destinies of his Motherland and he will continue to inspire and strengthen our minds and thoughts. God's will be done. *At the Mayo Hall, Allahabad.*

HON. RAI RADHA CHARAN PAL BAHADUR.

His was a beautiful life, brightened by a pure, spotless and serene character. Ambition for dignities he had none and like the great Commoner of England he liked to live and die without a handle to his name. Whether we regard his devoted public life or his private life and character, we derive a consolation in the midst of our grief that he has left a bright example of enthusiastic and self-sacrificing public spirit of gentle affection, warm sympathies and philanthropy which constitute the rich legacy he has bequeathed to his country. In this sense he is not dead but yet alive in our midst. I am sure the life and character of Mr. Gokhale will be deemed a possession by his countrymen, a possession which they will cherish and that they will imitate not only his success but also his example in regard to his industry, to his sincerity, to his philanthropy and to his self-control and moderation and self-sacrificing public spirit. *At Calcutta Corporation.*

MR. D. E. WACHA.

If I might in one sentence compress all that Mr. Gokhale was, I should say that he was a Goliath of popular interests in the Councils of the Empire, a great Gamaliel of public affairs, a good Samaritan and a Gabriel in his domestic and social life. *At the Bombay Corporation.*

HON. PUNDIT MOTILAL NEHRU.

Who can measure the enormous national loss that we have suffered? A great and terrible national calamity has befallen the motherland, too terrible to admit of adequate expression in words. To say, gentlemen, that Mr. Gokhale was a great patriot and the foremost of public men is to utter a truism which falls far short of what he really was to his countrymen. His was a noble soul fired by a patriotism, all consuming. A born leader of men he never aspired to anything but the humblest servant of the motherland, in whose services he brought such devotion into play that it is now a matter of history. He lived up to the very high ideal which he set before himself and his countrymen. *At the Allahabad Meeting.*

THE HON. MR. SURENDRANATH BANERJEE.

The whole country has been thrust into the jaws of a great agony. A prince and a great man has fallen. One of the greatest figures in the political world of India of to-day has disappeared. One of the stoutest champions of India's rights and liberties has been cut off in the prime of life. He was a political 'Rishi' in the true sense of the term. I had the fortune of knowing him for upwards of 25 years and I never came across a truer, nobler and gentler nature. I knew him as a young man and I knew him in the maturity of his public life. So true, so devoted, so self-sacrificing a figure it is difficult to find amongst our public men. A political 'Rishi' has passed away and a nation is in mourning. *Calcutta Town Hall.*

BABU MOTI LAL GHOSE.

We all are familiar with Mr. Gokhale's gigantic intellect, his marvellous power of debate and marshalling economic and financial facts and figures, his ceaseless and inspiring industry, but that which made him so universally loved, esteemed and respected, was his character. His patriotism was of the highest order. He sought to extinguish self and devote his body and soul to the service of the motherland unconditionally. He lived and died for his country and a more ennobling example cannot be conceived. Talking of his self-sacrifice, fancy he did not accept a *K. C. I. E.* Our public men cannot do greater honour to Mr. Gokhale than by following his example in this respect. In his private life he was pure, simple, sweet and loving. No honour can be too great for such an all-worthy personage. *Speech at Calcutta.*

HON. DR. SUNDAR LAL.

He was one of those who with the brightest prospects in life, chose to give up all that to work for the country. He has now passed away. He was one whom I had particularly known for many years and with whom I had the pleasure of discussing questions, and only last year about this time, I was with him at Delhi. In fact my heart is too full to be able to speak about him to-day. I therefore do not propose to take up your time by saying anything further than that a few minutes before his death, the wish nearest his heart was the work that he was doing for the country and his last message was that we should continue to do it. *At the Allahabad Meeting.*

MR. CACHALIA.

He was an Indian first and foremost. Great Indians there have been before him. Great Indians will come after him. But he was the first who definitely called himself a Servant of India.

We in this country mourn the loss of a beloved friend whose heart bled for us at a moment when our very existence as a self-respecting community was in the balance. *At the Johannesburg Memorial Service.*

THE HON. MR. MUZR-UL HAQUE.

I have never seen a man in my life, and I am now pretty well acquainted with most of the leading and prominent men of India, who was so devoid of narrow sectarianism of every kind as Mr. Gokhale was. In his eyes, Hindus and Muhammadans, Mahrattas and Bengalees, were absolutely equal. Naturally he was proud of being a Mahratta Brahmin, but was prouder still of being an Indian.

It was a sight for the gods to see as he dealt blows after blows, straight from the shoulder, and discomfited his opponents, officials and non-officials alike. His incisive criticisms of those official measures which did not command his assent were of such a severe and crushing nature that the officials could hardly meet his arguments. His life is an object-lesson for those of us who think that politics are a game at which anyone who can read and write may play. *Speech at Patna.*

THE HON. MR. FERARD.

Mr. Gokhale is recognised by all as the true friend of India and he died in harness, an example which all of us might emulate. Speaking of the Allahabad division, which I represent, I would say that we all join deeply in the regret which has been expressed by this crowded meeting to-day.

THE HON. DR. TEJ BAHADUR SAPRU.

"He could only represent their feelings in the famous couplet of Ghalib 'The ear is deprived of his message, The eyes can no longer see. One face, one heart, and so many calamities.' 'Alas! Alas!'" *At the Allahabad Meeting.*

SIR FAZULBHOY CURRIMBHOY.

He was a patriot, in the purest and most ideal sense of the term, and a true son of India, who gave his whole-hearted services to his Motherland, and that too, quietly and unostentatiously. Although his brilliant and inspiring career has been so prematurely cut off, long will his memory abide. *At the Bombay Meeting.*

MR. MIRZA SAUMI-UL-LA BEG.

To-day, when his soul has departed, I find the Mussalmans looking upon him from still a different angle. They are vying with the Hindus in showing their feeling of respect and regard for him. The man whom they disclaimed in 1899 is now claimed by them as their man. This is the greatest achievement of an Indian Patriot. Even Sir Syed Ahmed Khan did not rise to that eminence from one point of view. This is full of significance for the future of India. *At the Meeting for an All-India Memorial Fund, Delhi.*

The United Provinces Executive Council.

It is impossible to write with restraint on the action of the House of Lords in wrecking the harmless measure for the creation of an Executive Council for the United Provinces of Agra and Oude. The history of the Executive Council in these Provinces has been the history of nearly a century of hope and disappointment in alternation. And this particular reform demanded by the unanimous body of public opinion not only in the United Provinces but in all India and backed up by both the Provincial Government and the Government of India belongs to the memorable scheme of development which Lord Morley initiated six years ago. No objection was taken to the measure in the House of Commons but Lord MacDonnell supported by Lord Curzon and Lord Sydenham carried a motion against the Proclamation, which was vetoed by 47 votes against 26. As the *Daily News* pertinently pointed out "forty seven peers, representing nobody but themselves and responsible to nobody but themselves, have thus vetoed a reform urged by the head of the Government of all India and the head of the United Provinces and demanded by the sentiment of the people who voice it."

The literature on the subject of what may be called Council Government is already voluminous and there is little need at this time of the century to expatiate at length on the anomalies of single man rule. It was reserved for Sir John Hewett to belittle the necessity of Council Government partly for the fear that Indians will find a place in the sanctuary. But that is precisely why the good Viceroy, after considerable experience of the advantages of the Indian element in the Council is so anxious to bring the measure and widen the scope of the Council Government. Such a sober and by no means revolutionary member of the bureaucracy as Sir James Meston favours the proposal which his predecessor refused to countenance. The Lieutenant Governor's leading arguments are thus summarised in the report of the Government of India :—

He thinks that the efficient discharge of the duties of his position is at present still within the compass of one man; but he points out that the volume of work is steadily growing, while in certain directions a rapid and large increase is to be anticipated. He concludes, therefore, that it is impossible to say that the burden of provincial rule will continue, for any length of time, to be

such as a single man can bear. Secondly, he observes that, given a certain stage of advancement, the demand for the enlistment of the assistance of an Indian gentleman in the highest circles of Government (which has already been conceded in the case of our own Council and in those of the three Presidencies and one Lieutenant-Governorship) cannot logically or profitably be indefinitely resisted. On these grounds the Lieutenant-Governor holds that the creation of an Executive Council is a certain development of the near future, consistent with the whole trend of progress which British administration has acknowledged and encouraged, and he considers that it is better to recognise these facts now than at a later stage, when it may be represented that this innovation was forced upon us rather than accepted as a step in the march of progress which is the legitimate and foreseen sequel of past action.

To the minds of the majority of us, say the Government of India these conclusions are just and wise :—

We think that it is now too late to reopen any theoretical discussion as to the relative merits of single or of Council Government. It has been recognised that at one stage of administrative evolution the former is preferable but that at a later stage, when the bulk of administration becomes larger and more complicated, the latter ensues as a natural consequence, involving, as is now admitted to be the case, the association of an Indian member in the highest position of authority. The main question, therefore, is one of expediency, that is, as to the time at which a province should pass from one stage to the other, and we are of opinion that in the case of the United Provinces that time has now arrived.

With these weighty words the Government of India backed up a measure which, if carried, would have fulfilled an important part of the promises held out by the Reforms Act of 1909. Indeed no measure of British Indian administration has been so unanimously backed up by the Provincial Governor, the Viceroy and the Secretary of State, and yet the Lords have deliberately thought it wise to frustrate it. The only three minutes of dissent were those of Sir Harcourt Butler, Sir Reginald Craddock and Sir Robert Carlyle. With these exceptions there was no measure of recent times that was more strongly supported by every element of people and Government. It is unfortunate that the Lords should have chosen this Bill and this hour for their blundering interference. Lord Crewe and H. E. the Viceroy have spoken in no uncertain terms of the action of a handful of peers in wrecking a measure so unanimously supported by the country

and the Government alike. H. E. Lord Hardinge pointed out at a Meeting of the Viceregal Council:


It has been with a sense of profound regret that I have learnt that an address to His Majesty the King Emperor against the Draft Proclamation creating an Executive Council for the United Provinces has been carried by the House of Lords. It appears that out of a total of nearly 650 Peers of the Realm and in a house of only 73 Peers the motion against the Draft Proclamation was carried by 47 votes to 26. No information has been received of any similar motion in the House of Commons and we may, therefore, conclude the Proclamation has not been rejected by Parliament, as a whole. As you are aware, the recent Proclamation was approved by the Governor-General in Council, by the Secretary of State in Council and by His Majesty's Government, and, in accordance with the law, was laid on the table in both Houses of Parliament. It may seem to you, as it does to me, a matter of serious concern that it should be within the power of a small body of Peers, who, perhaps, hardly realise the rate of progress made in this country during the past few years, to throw out a proposition put by the Government of India and His Majesty's Government before Parliament with the full approbation of Indian public opinion. It seems clear to me under the circumstances that modification of the law by which such procedure is possible is absolutely essential and I trust this will be recognised by His Majesty's Government. Nobody can reasonably contend that with the advance of civilization, entailing the discussion and solution of new questions of ever-increasing complexity arising every day, one man Government is better than Council Government. The principle of Executive Council for

Local Governments, by which the local administrations is less dependent upon the personal equation and which ensures a greater continuity of policy, has already taken root in India and cannot now be eradicated. Moreover the inclusion of an Indian gentleman in the Council of a Province is, to my mind, a source of great strength to the Governors or Lieutenant-Governors. I speak from my own experience and have no hesitation in saying, without any idea of flattery, that the presence of my friend, Sir Ali Imam, on my Council and his knowledge and experience are, and have been, of the greatest possible advantage to me and my Government. I can well understand that all educated people of this country will be disappointed at the result brought about by a small party in the House of Lords, but I would ask them not to be depressed, for I regard the proceedings of the 16th March in the House of Lords as only a temporary set-back and I feel as confident that the United Provinces will have its Executive Council within a very short period as that the dawn will follow the night.

But this is not the end of that measure. It will be well to remember the words of the *Daily News*:—

We in England know quite well that it is only the pre-occupation of this tremendous war which has made this veto by the Lords possible, and that when the war is over India will get what she needs, however the Lords may like or dislike it. But that is not so readily intelligible to India, and the offence of the 47 peers will stand out for all time as an example of how vain men trifle with the destinies of mighty empires.

THE HINDU UNIVERSITY.

 THE Hindu University Bill has at last been introduced in the Imperial Council and it is gratifying to note that the provisions of the scheme have given general satisfaction. It is the result of the rare statesmanship of H. E. the Viceroy and Sir Harcourt Butler on the one hand and the spirit of evident co-operation and enthusiasm displayed by the promoters of the great scheme. It cannot, however, be said that the scheme has given complete satisfaction to all parties concerned but the compromise has been effected in a spirit which is certainly fruitful of further improvements on the measure. The Bill has been discussed so widely and so trenchantly in the Press of India that it is scarcely necessary to go into the ground again. We have ourselves published a symposium on the subject from representative leaders touching the various aspects of the measure.

In introducing the Bill in the Viceregal Council Sir Harcourt Butler made a notable speech (which will be found in another column) in which he rightly pointed out how by a series of compromises the Government and society have arrived at a definite conclusion and how by a genuine spirit of co-operation the difficulties have been overcome. "My Lord," said the Member for Education, "this is no ordinary occasion; we are watching to-day the birth of a new and, many hope, better type of University. The main features of this University, which distinguish it from the existing Universities, will be first that it will be a teaching and residential University; secondly, that while it will be open to all castes and creeds, it will insist upon religious instruction for Hindus; and thirdly, that it will be conducted and managed by the Hindu Community and almost entirely by non-officials. I say that

this is a new type and many hope better type of University." Sir Harcourt quickly points out that this is no disparagement to the existing Universities which have done so much to the new life of India. The new University is an All-India one. "It is incorporated for the teaching of all knowledge but will commence with five faculties: arts, science, law, oriental studies and theology." The faculty of technology will soon be a welcome feature of addition. These, in short, are the special features of the University.

Such being the functions what are the powers vested in the Members of the University and how are they different from those of the existing Universities? Sir Harcourt compares the Calcutta University and shows that the balance of advantage in powers lies with the new University.

In Calcutta 80 of the 100 ordinary members of the Senate are nominated by the Chancellor, who is ex-officio Governor-General, while the election of the remaining 20 is subject to the approval of the Chancellor. In the case of this University only 5 out of a minimum of 50 are nominated by the visitor, who is ex-officio Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, and this provision was suggested by yourselves in order to secure expert official help and co-operation. In Calcutta, the appointment of the Professors requires the sanction of the Government of India. In this University, no such sanction is required. There will be in this University, under normal conditions, no interference whatever from outside with the University staff. In Calcutta, the Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the Governor-General in Council. In this University the Court elects the Vice-Chancellor, subject only to the approval of the visitor. The Court has power to elect its own Chancellor and Pro-Chancellor. In the Court and Council, the Government has no voice or representation whatever.

As we said at the outset, more than the Bill as it is, the spirit animating the measure is one of happy cordiality. Indeed the whole Council was with Sir Harcourt in inaugurating this important measure. Never were the Government and the non-official Members more anxious to co-operate with one another in the Council Hall. The Hon. Dr. Sunderlal said that the Bill marked a memorable epoch in Indian Education and constituted an important movement for the expansion of University education. He also referred to the sympathy of Sir James Meston with the promoters and said that he reserved observations on details to the suitable stage. After referring to the various special features of the University Dr. Sunderlal said that it would be a University of the people devoted to their interest and responsibilities. The Hon. Mr. Bannerjee in supporting the motion paid an eloquent tribute to Sir Harcourt Butler on the great speech he had made. The speaker did not pledge himself to the details of the Bill

and pleaded for the liberal constitution, as without responsibility there could be no efficiency. He accepted Sir Harcourt Butler's invitation to trust and confidence with alacrity and enthusiasm. He further said that instead of creating difference of opinion as apprehended by Mr. Ghaznavi the University by diffusion of knowledge would bring the two communities together. Referring to Sir Harcourt Butler's speech, Mr. Bannerjee said that he had listened to many speeches in the Council, but he rarely heard a speech so sympathetic, so deeply attuned with love for India and her people. The measure was a crowning act of sympathy and love of Government of Hardinge, of which Sir Harcourt Butler was a worthy member. He ridiculed the idea that the University would be citadel of reaction and expressed no fear that it would be a citadel of reaction and expressed no fear that it would be sectarian institution. He concluded by reminding the Council of the King's message and said "More light, kindly light." Pundit Malaviya said that they owed a deep debt of gratitude to the Viceroy who had shown a broad and liberal-minded sympathy in shaping the Bill and the people were none the less grateful to Sir Harcourt Butler. Referring to the remarks of Mr. Ghaznavi and Mr. Setalvad, the speaker said that in spite of non-sectarian Universities difference of opinion had existed between the two communities. It was no use shutting their eyes to that fact. He was sure that this University would not aggravate it. He could not agree to any proposal which did not lay down provision for compulsory religious education. Mr. Malaviya dwelt at length on this question and warmly defended the provision of compulsory religious education.

The introduction of the Bill was thus carried *nem con.*

It is pleasing to note that though Sir Harcourt Butler has been elevated to the Lieutenant-Governorship of Burma he will come again to pilot the Bill into the Viceregal Council, and we may hope that in time it will be found expedient to award a larger and fuller measure of freedom to the University so that Sir Harcourt Butler's high hopes may be realised. Sir Harcourt truly said in concluding his brilliant speech:—

If I was a Hindu I should be proud indeed of the achievement of my people, and at the same time I felt some little pride myself that I was a member of a Government which had joined in one more endeavour to combine the ancient and honoured culture of India with the culture of the modern Western World.

CURRENT EVENTS

BY RAJDUARI.

SLOW BUT STEADY PROGRESS.

ANOTHER four weeks have rolled by which brings up the duration of war to thirty-four weeks. The allied armies, in the Eastern and Western theatres alike, have made a steady progress of a most satisfactory character. Even in the further East, that is, in Asiatic Turkey they have achieved creditable feats of arms. In French Flanders the enemy has suffered a decisive defeat at Neuve Chapelle, while the English and the French have held more than their own and consolidated the fruits of their victory, bloody as it was, and wrought by the reckless spirit of desperation which is the principal characteristic of all the enemy's fighting since the new year. He looks neither to the right nor left. He knows not how many men are killed and wounded. He goes on blindly enough putting on the field reinforcements after reinforcements which now mostly consist of reserves and even the *landweher*. This continuous exodus of supplementary troops from the herd is slowly producing its natural effect on the civil population which cannot fight. But millions of men are to the fanatic emperor so many pawns who must be sacrificed to win him a personal triumph. That triumph still awaits him. And if one can venture to judge from the course of the eight months' campaign, it seems to him nearer than when at first start which was to witness his legions planting the eagles of the Hohenzollern in Paris within a fortnight or three weeks. The enemy is now obliged to economise his ammunition which is undergoing steady exhaustion with fewer or very limited resources to manufacture anything like the quantity needed to win the campaign. When Lord Kitchener has openly declared that there is yet no little desideratum of all the sinews of war, in face of factories of all kinds of arms and ammunitions forging ahead day and night with all the vigour of the Vulcan, it may be easily inferred what outside resources the enemy could have for forging the supplementary ammunition which he so easily needs. The internal resources are certainly very limited in spite of what may be procurable from Neutral States overtly or covertly. We may take it for granted that the Krupps are working their hardest and exerting their very best to assist the "Father-

land" and confound its enemies. But even that Teutonic Vulcan must be fumbling for necessary raw materials to manufacture new guns surpassing those of the Allies and build submarines which shall run with the speed of the electricity and make execution of a diabolical character in a trice so as to raise the blockade so effectively held by the British Admirals. There may be food to last till next August. There may be that patriotic ardour and spirit to undergo the highest sacrifice by practising starvation or semi-starvation. But how long may such spirit and ardour endure. Hope deferred makes the heart sick and the time must come, sooner or later, when all hope of a crushing victory over the Allies may be dissipated, and the muffled murmurs of a people must swell to a deafening shriek, a national shriek which will be the precursor of a popular revolt of a character which History has related in the past. All these coming events seem to cast their shadows from now. The handwriting on the wall is still darkened but time must illuminate it and toll the final knell. Already twenty millions of men are dead or in a state unfit to resume their soldierly avocation. The soldier himself is being maltreated by his officer with all the brute force of Oden and Thor. He, too, is feeling the despair which cometh of continuous defeat, with not one glorious victory to stimulate and encourage him. His energy is fast diminishing. And there is no saying how in spite of the martinet and his iron discipline, now growing inhuman, he may join the popular revolt whenever on the tapes. A hungry belly is worse than a full fed rebel. And who is unaware of the havoc which a general rebellion of the belly brings about.

But it is not the Western campaign alone that has revealed all the ugly blots and the dark places of the once proud invincible army. The invincibility has been ruthlessly disproved by the eight months of hostilities, bloody hostilities, on the Aisne, the Marne, the Meuse and elsewhere. The invincibles have been mown down like the chaff. The contemptible Briton is now deemed the very dragon of the war, a creature to be hated because so terribly his superior. Repulse, repulse, dislodgment after dislodgment, that is the one mournful tale which the Kaiser hears from day

to day. There is nothing occurred as yet to redeem this daily dismal narrative which he either realises in person or which is telegraphed or telephoned to him by his trusty and valiant field-marshals.

The same gruesome narrative, aye, even of a worse character it is his lot to hear from the Eastern theatre of war. The Austrian has been thoroughly beaten and the trophy of the Russian by way of lakhs of prisoners of wars, and hundreds of guns and mitrailleuses and waggons of captured ammunition and other stores by the thousands tells the world of civilisation how utter is the rout of the Hapsburg army, now absolutely demoralised. Still the principal Passes, save one or two, of the Carpathians are in the hands of the Russians. So desperate is the situation there that the German has gone hurriedly to his aid with a huge army. The Kaiser himself is reported to take the charge of that army and a sad carnage show is soon to be witnessed which shall tell the world the result. The fate of both the belligerents hangs in the balance, with the advantage being on the side of the Muscovite who has all along surpassed himself as much by his hordes of fighting men as by the gallantry of the soldiers and the strategy of the generals. The morale is good and a vast stimulus to the further hordes swarming in the Passes to eventually emerge with glory on the plains of Hungary. Defeated and disheartened, the Austrian and the Hungarian are loudly clamouring for peace. But the Teuton denies him that consolation and staked his all on the die that is now cast in or about the great Ukza Pass which is the key to that great plain. A few days more will tell the world who is the victor.

War is evidently a game of chance. But the game is a calculated one and it remains to be seen who has cast up his calculations with precision.

On the Asiatic coast the Allies have everything their own way. They have bombarded Smyrne, and it is only a question of days when it shall be British as Basra already is. In Mesopotamia too the struggle is going on fiercely but always to the ultimate advantage of the Russians and the British. The back of Asiatic Turkey may be said to be already broken. The misguided Turk is in vain struggling for a mastery which Fate has denied him.

Meanwhile the fat is in the fire in Neutral Italy. It is simmering slowly and one cannot say when the final conflagration may take place. Already skirmishes in the Tyrol region are report-

ed with some killed and wounded. The populace is burning with indignation at the hesitation of the Government to cast its die with the Allies. But the Government deems, yet it is not fully prepared for war. The army is being mobilised and equipped for emergency that is now approaching. All diplomacy of the Teuton, as carried by the Machiavellian Prince Bulow, has failed. Italy will not take the paper promise of a trifling bribe. And as treatises and understandings are mere "scraps of paper," the Government fully understand what it should or should not do. The Government of Italy may really be said to be between the devil and the deep sea. The devil is its late ally while the deep sea is that of popular commotion. The storm is heavy, and we cannot say when it may burst in all its fury. It is a hideous irony of Fate that the Austrian Emperor, in the matter of the Italian incidents, is as obstinate as any of the Hapsburgs and will on no account listen to the Siren voice of the treacherous Hohenzollern. Prince Bulow's diplomatic mission is pronounced on all hands a dismal failure.

The Greeks are having a kind of civil war in the Government. King Constantine with his Pro-German proclivities is endeavouring to have the Fabian policy while his great minister and statesman, no other than Venizelos, was for an outright alliance with the Allies. The civil war was waged to the bitter end with this result that disgusted with the attitude of the Hellenic king. He has left Athens in indignation and declared that he would go on travel till the close of war. So this modern Achilles is sulking in his tent. What may be the future developments it is impossible to say. Like the people of Italy the people of Greece are all for the Allies. It is only the family ties of the king which have restrained him from casting his fortune with the former liberators of Greece. Another reason is the attitude of Bulgaria and Rumania. Those two states are also waiting to see which way the fortune of war turns in order to take sides. But there can be no doubt now as to Rumania joining the Allies. Her minister lately returned from London where he was on this delicate diplomatic mission. Rumania is to be well provided with the needed pence. And it is not unlikely that Bulgaria will eventually join the Allies also. But the Balkan politics are an unknown quantity, and he would be a true prophet who could say from now with certainty which way the ultimate wind may blow.

Misguided Turkey is a house divided against

herself. The "brigands of the Party of Progress and Union" have shown themselves utterly incapable of carrying on the administration. They are simply a plastic tool in the hands of the Teuton who bribes them with his gold which like time appears to jilt them. That man Enver Pasha, their leader, is destined to undergo as cruel a fate as it is possible for any man of his ignoble character to undergo. On the other hand the royalist party is absolutely invertebrate. The Sultan himself, however good, well meaning and well disposed towards the Allies, is defective in even ordinary statesmanship. It is unfortunate a limp man is at the helm of state at this critical juncture on the fortunes of his country. He is unable to take any action in order to overthrow the military party at whose head is Enver Pasha. Turkey is doomed. The death-knell of the Ottoman in Europe is told. Even his Asiatic dominions may be partitioned. This is the inevitable fate.

NAVAL AND AERIAL.

As regards naval and aerial warfare, it may be said once more that the Allies have irresistibly demonstrated to the civilised world the superiority of their naval and aerial strategy. While the Zeppelins have flown here and there over some of the seacoasts and hovered about, the airships

of the English and the French have achieved remarkable success. These have never disturbed any civil population. All through they have resolutely and courageously dared to destroy military stations, military buildings where all kinds of arms and ammunitions and submarines are manufactured and built. It is a perfectly legitimate warfare and history will give a brilliant page to their naval and aerial records as well as to their great humanity. As to the Teutonic "pirates" and "murderers" on sea, the less said the better. In reality their submarines have been able hitherto to do no tangible injury. If we say they are failures we shall in no way be using the language of exaggeration. The sum-total of the cruel and inhuman way in which they have torpedoed neutral vessels and the belligerent vessels with a civil population, will only be viewed with shame in the future history of this great war. The British Fleet stands as a towering sentinel at the gates of the North Sea and is rendering yeoman service to the cause of the world's commerce by sea. This goes undisturbed almost as if there had been no war. It is an invaluable service this Fleet is rendering to humanity and if for no other reason, for this service alone we wish her and her Ally a final triumph.

THE WORLD OF BOOKS

[SHORT NOTICES ONLY APPEAR IN THIS SECTION.]

The Mahrattas and the Moghuls. By *M. W. Burway.* Indore Re. 1-8-0.

This work is an enlargement of a previous volume "Introduction to the History of Gwalior" published by the author in 1902. It is a brief survey of all the landmarks in the growth and fall of the Mahratta power and makes use of the latest researches of Professor Rajwade and Mr. Pransis. The outburst of religious revival the chief exponent of which was Ramdas and which was chiefly instrumental in bringing about Mahratta unity is pointed out in all its significance. Zulfikar Khan's recognition of Maharaja Shahu started the Mahrattas on their great career as an Imperial power which was not brought to a close as Mussulman historians assert by the battle of Panipet. Even when the East India Company had become powerful and supreme, 'Nana Fadnavis, and Mahdaji Scindia kept up, and that successfully too, the attempt to maintain the pomp and grandeur of the Puna Durbar. And it was owing to the incompetency of their succes-

sors, that the Mahratta Empire suffered dismemberment. "The Mahratta power rose under Providence to eradicate the oppression of the Moghul rule and to deliver the Hindu race from the evil of Moghul tyranny; and in this work the Mahrattas eminently succeeded." This small book shows industry and research and what is more a just idea of proportion with regard to the treatment of the various phases of Mahratta rule.

Poems of War and Battle. *Selected by V. H. Collins.* Oxford University Press, Bombay.

Some of these patriotic songs may be familiar to the student of poetry. The old familiar poems are chosen with Mr. Collins' characteristic taste. But modern authors and living ones especially have done some pieces that cannot be neglected in a collection of war poems. They are represented by the inevitable Rudyard Kipling, Thomas Hardy, G. K. Chesterton, Alfred Noyes and Sir A. Conan-Doyle. The volume is quite appropriate for the hour.

My Past. *By the Countess Marie Larisch.*
G. Bell & Sons, Ltd.

The Countess Marie Larisch was a daughter of Duke Ludwig of Bavaria, who in 1859 renounced his claim to the throne of Bavaria in order to marry the beautiful Henrietta Mendel, then a popular actress. The Duke had five sisters, all possessed of no ordinary share of beauty. One was Elizabeth, Empress of Austria, who died at the hand of an assassin in Switzerland, another was that Duchess d'Alençon who lost her life in the famous fire at a fashionable charity bazaar in Paris, a third was the ex-Queen of Naples, while the two others were the Princess Truni and the Princess Theorn and Taxis. Marie, Baroness Von Wallersee as she was before her marriage, had thus the ontree into the inner circle of European royalties. As niece to the Empress of Austria, first cousin to the Crown Prince and a special favourite of her aunt, Elizabeth, up to the date of her marriage, saw much of the secret working of the gay Court of Vienna. There seems little doubt that she was removed from this position because she proved too attractive to some of the Empress' own admirers. At any rate she was hastily married to the Count George Larisch, and the marriage was shortly after followed by her withdrawal from Court, her husband preferring to live in his castle in Bavaria. The marriage was, however, a loveless one and was legally annulled in 1896. In the present volume the Countess presents the story of her past life, a discreet silence being maintained regarding the present.

The annals of the royal families both of Bavaria and Austria are not likely to be accused of lack of variety of incident or of too humdrum a quality. In the house of Wittelbach there exists a distinct strain of madness. King Ludwig II. of Bavaria, the patron of Wagner, was always eccentric and finally became insane. He was found drowned in a lake in the palace grounds, holding down his physician with whom he had gone for a solitary walk. His brother, Otto, who succeeded him, is also now insane and lives in retirement, state affairs being managed by a Regent, who is the heir to the throne. But if the ducal house of Bavaria is mad, its madness is picturesque and combined with undoubted cleverness. In the Hapsburgs of Austria, on the other hand, madness more usually shows itself in depravity and has resulted in more than one tragedy. It is with one of these incidents that Countess Larisch's book is largely

concerned, as it seems to have been written to clear herself from some accusations in connection with it. On the 30th January 1889 the world was startled by the news that the Crown Prince of Austria had been found dead in a hunting box a few miles from Vienna. The wildest stories were circulated as to the cause and circumstances of his death and Countess Larisch professes to tell the true story. Rudolf, the Crown Prince, had been married several years before to the Princess, Stéphanie of Belgium, but the marriage had not been a happy one, and the Prince's flirtations had been many and desperate. Just before his death he had become entangled in an intrigue with an unmarried lady of the Austrian Court, and she was found in the hunting box dead by his side, both having been shot through the head. It appears that the Prince had been engaged in some obscure political intrigue relating to the throne of Hungary. Fear of discovery and disgrace had already shaken his nerves when there was added to this disturbing factor the prospect of a social scandal. His companion was young, foolish, excitable, and they resolved to commit suicide together.

It is unnecessary here to dilate on the Countess Larisch's share in the events which led up to the catastrophe. On her own showing, she was guilty of extraordinary weakness and folly, and considering that she was a woman of nearly 30, who had been married 10 years, she deserved the disgrace which overtook her at the Court of Vienna. How far her account of the events she took part in is to be trusted is a more difficult matter. It may be assumed that she puts before the world the most favourable version and she certainly fails to explain why she allowed herself to be made a cat's-paw of in this miserable and sordid affair. Few will believe that the whole truth has been told or that she had no ulterior motive for becoming a go-between of the Crown Prince and his victim. But in any case it was unbecoming to publish these intimate relations to the whole world and the appearance of the book cannot fail to have been painful to the aged Emperor of Austria who commands the respect and sympathy of the entire world. While, therefore, the work in question undoubtedly possesses a considerable amount of painful interest, it is hardly one on which the author is to be congratulated.

The Court of Christina of Sweden, and the later Adventures of the Queen in Exile. By Francis Gribble. London: G. Bell and Sons.

The serious side of history has no attraction for Mr. Gribble. The love affairs of monarchs are the only aspect of their lives in which he is greatly interested, and it was therefore only natural that after writing about the "Comedy of Catherine the Great of Russia," and the "Tragedy of Isabella II. of Spain," he should have turned his attention to what he might not inaptly have called the "Tragi-comedy of Christina of Sweden." For there was much both of the tragic and comic elements in Christina's life, especially in the most important act of that life, her voluntary resignation at the age of twenty-eight of the crown of a kingdom which bulked much more largely in the world's eyes then than it does now and in her later love affair with Cardinal Azzolino, in which she was the pursuer rather than the pursued. Mr. Gribble's researches certainly seem to show that the Cardinal's affection for Christina was of the Platonic order but that hers for him was of a much warmer nature.

Mr. Gribble's book is not likely to satisfy the serious student of history but it is a very readable study of a personality more interesting but not nearly so attractive as that of another Christina, Christina of Denmark, who lived almost exactly a century earlier. Mr. Gribble considers that Christina's eccentricities would in these days be ascribed to the possession of a "neurotic" temperament and there can be no doubt that he is right. "Nerves" were unknown to medicine in the seventeenth century. Her abdication he attributes to a desire to live her own life in her own way, which meant that she could follow the religion to which the stern reformers of the North were so bitterly opposed and could devote herself wholly to the art, letters and science for which barbarous Sweden had no appreciation. Possibly this was so, but the opportunity of astonishing the world by the unique spectacle of a great Queen, in the plenitude of youth, voluntarily resigning her crown probably appealed equally to Christina's vivid imagination. In any case, the renunciation of the crown did not mean

the renunciation of worldly ambition, for Christina twice returned to Sweden (in 1660 and 1667) in the hope of recovering the succession and also indulged in designs on two other thrones, those of Naples and of Poland. On the mystery of the execution, or assassination, as her enemies considered it, of Monaldeschi, her major-domo, which occurred during Christina's second visit to France in 1657 and has remained ever since a "historical mystery," Mr. Gribble has very little new light to throw. He believes that Christina had Monaldeschi put out of the way because she had obtained proofs of his treason but exactly in what that treason consisted, he has not been able to discover. Of Christina's latest years we are told but little, and it is curious that Mr. Gribble should not have mentioned that she died in 1689 at the age of sixty-two. Mr. Gribble refers to her as an old woman. Sixty-two is hardly old age but a woman of Christina's extraordinary vitality, who lived her life at twice the ordinary rate, would doubtless age prematurely.

Letters from Persia and India 1857-59.

Of Sir George Digby Barker. Edited by Lady Barker. George Bell & Sons, London.

This small collection of letters was written by General Barker while serving as a young Lieutenant with the 78th Highlanders. They are chiefly to his mother and to his sister and were written during the Persian War and the Indian Mutiny. Barker was gazetted to a Commission in 1853 and stationed in Poona for two years. He went out to Persia soon after and took part in the battle of Koosh-ab, the bombardment of Mohammerah and the expedition to Ahwaz. In India he was with General Havelock's column throughout the mutiny; and his long budget describing the defence and relief of Lucknow is vivid and full of interest. The letters are worth perusal, since it became a practice with Barker not to miss any home mail through all the stress and strain of continual fighting. The veteran soldier, after nearly half a century of service, retired in 1902 and died in 1914; and this small collection was made by his wife in the hope that they will be specially acceptable to the officers and men of the regiment he loved so well and to his many friends and relations.

THE "JAPAN DAILY MAIL" ON "THE INDIAN REVIEW."

This excellent Review. . . . is a good example of what can be done by educated Indians writing in a foreign language. The English style of the Indian contributors, who form the majority, usually shows a degree of mastery of the language which is worthy of high praise. Needless to say there is nothing like this Review in Japan.

G. A. NATESAN & CO., BOOKSELLERS, 3 & 4, SUNKURAMA CHETTY STREET, MADRAS.

DIARY OF THE WAR

- March 17.** British success near Ypres.
French advance in Arras and Champagne.
Sinking of the *Dresden* by British Squadron off Chili.
Lord Kitchener's review.
- March 18.** Battle of Neuve Chapelle
Progress of the Belgians.
Russian successes in Poland.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
German blockade; some British reprisals; Sir Edward Grey's reply to America.
- March 19.** French and Belgian progress.
Zeppelin raid on Calais.
Fighting on the Yser.
Co-operation of British warships.
Russian activity on East Prussian frontier.
The siege of Przemyśl; Russians closing in.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles.
End of the *Karlsruhe*.
- March 20.** French success in Champagne.
Seizure of a Swedish steamer.
Exploit of the "*Thordia*"; Captain honoured.
Loss of the German cruiser, *Strassburg*.
- March 21.** Miles of German trenches captured.
Invasion of East Prussia; Russian raid on Memel.
Forcing the Dardanelles; entrance forts silenced.
Russian Fleet off the Bosphorus.
German air raid on Deal, bombs dropped into the sea.
- March 22.** Battle of St. Elol, a graphic report.
Austrian losses at Przemyśl.
Forcing the Dardanelles, destruction of forts.
Italian Note to Austria.
German seizure of Dutch steamers.
British successes in German S. W. Africa.
Wild scenes in the Reichstag.
- March 23.** Fall of Przemyśl.
Russian advance in Bukowina.
French progress in Champagne.
Russian advance on Black Sea coast.
- March 24.** Zeppelin raid on Paris.
Bombardment of Rheims, bombs dropped on the city.
Fall of Przemyśl, Russian leaders honoured by the Czar.
Russian successes in the Carpathians.
Military activity in Italy.
Interned German liner at San Juan, attempts to escape.
- March 25.** Franco-Belgian successes.
British air attack on Hoboken.
Rout of the Turks near Suoz.
Dardanelles operations hampered by a storm.
- March 26.** French Infantry's exploit at Notre Dame de Lorette.
German Council of War at Lille, the Kaiser present.
A great Russian victory in the Carpathians.
Furious fighting in Poland.
Defeat of the Turks in the Caucasus.
Sinking of German submarine *U 29*.
- March 27.** Fighting at Notre Dame de Lorette.
Fine condition of French army.
King George's visit to Harwich.
- March 28.** Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
German submarine rammed.
Three German ships sunk in the Baltic.
Italy's popular vote for intervention.
- March 29.** Forcing the Dardanelles.
Conference of Admirals.
Russian Navy reinforced in the Baltic.
Kurdish atrocities.
- March 30.** A British Mail Steamer sunk.
German women's anti-war movement.
Greece and Bulgarian neutrality.
British labour and the war.
M. Venizelos' remarkable speech.
- March 31.** Fighting in Alsace.
Great uneasiness in Constantinople.
Russian advance in the Carpathians.
Forcing the Dardanelles.
- April 1.** Desperate indecisive fighting in Argonne.
Bombardment of Zeebrugge by allied aeroplanes.
Bombardment of Libau by German warships.
Russian Fleet's move on the Bosphorus.
Russian successes in the Caucasus.
German submarine rammed by a French warship.
City of Cambridge bombarded by a German submarine.
Capture of German camp in South-West Africa.
- April 2.** French successes on Western front.
Sinking of the *Crown of Castile*.
German retreat at Krasnopole.
Russian successes in the Carpathians.
Russian Fleet bombards fort in the Bosphorus.
- April 3.** Fighting on the Yser.
Activity of allied armies at Hoboken and Zeebrugge.
Russian victory on the Niemen and in the Carpathians.
Sinking of the "Seven Seas," "Emma," "South Point" and three trawlers.
Norwegian barque torpedoed in the North Sea.
- April 4.** Bombardment of Zeebrugge by British warships.
The "Lockwood" torpedoed.
Bombardment of the Dardanelles; a German Officer's description.
- April 5.** Fighting in Alsace, capture of Hartmannsweilerkopf.
French official description.
General Joffre visits Belgian Headquarters; received by King Albert.
Russians capture the Carpathians.
Austrian retreat.
Attack on Bosphorus Forts by Russian Fleet.
Turkish cruiser "Medjidieh" sunk.
Drink question in England.
Archbishop of Canterbury's appeal.
- April 6.** British air-raid on Hoboken; much damage done.
Russian progress in Poland and the Carpathians; desperate Austrian situation.
Pursuit of the "Goeben" and "Breslau" by Russian warships.
German blockade, three steamers sunk.
Drink question in England; King George's example.

April 7. Another great French effort at Eparges and St. Mihiel.
Big battle in the Carpathians.
Desperate Austrian retreat.
Field Marshal Goltz's return to Constantinople.
American Note on British reprisals.
Fighting in German S. W. Africa.
Union Forces capture Warmbad.
April 8. Belgian success on the Yser, German troops repulsed.
Germans in Antwerp prepare to flood the country.
Fighting in German S. W. Africa; occupation of Kalkfontein and Kamus.
April 9. Substantial French progress, gains everywhere consolidated.
Russian offensive in Carpathians constantly reinforced.
Austrian demands for German help.
The position in Turkey; shortage of supplies; all available men called up.
April 10. Important French gains at Eparges, between the Meuse and Moselle.
Russian successes in the Carpathians, preparatory to invading Hungary.
Portuguese ship *Douro* torpedoed.
April 11. Brilliant French success at Eparges.
Russian progress in the Carpathians.
Austrian peace overtures.

Germany's consent reported to have been given.
Forcing the Dardanelles.
The French Expeditionary Force quartered at Ramleh.
The German Blockade; exciting experience of the *Thetis*; tug Captain's bravery.
Treatment of British prisoners; appalling revelations.
Italy and Serbia's agreement regarding the Adriatic.
April 12. "Eye witness" remarkable report.
American and German peace talk.
Alleged appeal by the Pope.
Germany and the Netherlands.
April 13. German failure at Beau Sejour.
Fighting in the Carpathians.
Sir John French on munitions.
American indignation.
German submarine commander's piracy.
April 14. Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
Sir John French's despatch.
The Kaiser in command.
America's sharp reply to Germany.
April 15. Fighting on the Tysar.
More fighting in Mesopotamia.
Defeat of the Turks.
Austria and Italy.
April 16. Capture of Les Eparges.
Hungarian town evacuated.
Air raid in England.
Great indignation in Holland.

DIARY OF THE MONTH

March 18. It is announced that Lord Crewe intends to persevere with the proposal to establish an Executive Council for the United Provinces.
March 19. Mr. H. P. Duval, Additional Sessions Judge, presiding over the Alipore Criminal Sessions to-day, sentenced the prisoner to death.
March 20. H. H. the Maharaja of Alwar has given Rs. 2 lakhs to the Benares Hindu University.
March 21. In his speech at Lyallpur Agricultural College the Lieutenant-Governor announced the Grant of a Research Scholarship of Rs. 60 with free tuition.
March 22. In a preliminary meeting of the All-India Gokhale Memorial Committee it was resolved to request H. H. the Aga Khan to be President of the General Committee.
March 23. A hearty reception was given to Mr. Gandhi by the citizens of Rangoon.
March 24. At the meeting of the Viceregal Council presided over by Sir Harcourt Butler the Hon. Mr. Sharp laid on the table the Report on Education for 1913-14.
March 25. To-day's meeting of the Council was presided by H. E. the Viceroy when the budget was discussed.
March 26. Prof. C. I. Hamilton leaves Calcutta for Japan to investigate the methods of Japanese industrial development.
March 27. The Committee appointed to investigate the possibilities of assisting local industries in the United Provinces submitted its final report.
March 28. A crowded meeting of the citizens of Lucknow, representing all sects and creeds, was held to-day at Lucknow with the Hon. Raja of Jehangirabad.

March 29. At to-day's meeting of the British Indian Association the Maharaja of Burdwan spoke at length on anarchical crimes in Bengal.
March 30. A State Banquet was given to-night to H. E. Viceroy by H. H. Maharaja of Gwalior.
March 31. A well attended public meeting was held at Allahabad re: the United Provinces Executive Council with the Hon. Mr. Motilal Nehru in the chair.
April 1. Two special Commissioners have been appointed for Punjab under the Defence of India Act.
April 2. At the United Provinces Provincial Conference at Gorakhpur Mrs. Annie Besant delivered her Presidential Address.
April 3. The non-official members of the Bombay Legislative Council gave a dinner to the Hon. Mr. Claude Hill on the eve of his elevation to the Viceregal Council.
April 4. At a meeting of the Muslim University Association the speakers said they were prepared for the same terms as those of the Hindu University.
April 5. It is announced that everything has settled down at Singapore.
April 6. At to-day's meeting of the Bengal Legislative Council with H. E. Lord Carmichael in the chair the Budget discussion took place.
April 7. At to-day's meeting of the Bengal Council a Resolution urging the appointment of a City Civil Court for Calcutta was discussed and adopted.
April 8. The Secretary of State for India has sanctioned the revised scheme for the permanent organization of the Department of Education in India.
April 9. It is announced that His Majesty the King has given the lead in the matter of alcoholic drink and the example is being followed at Calcutta.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

FREE TRADE AND PROTECTION. By Dr. A. Heringa.
T. Fisher Unwin, London. Price 3/6 net.

OXFORD PAMPHLETS. Oxford University Press,
Bombay.

THE LEADING IDEAS OF BRITISH POLICY. By
Gerard Collier. 2d.

THE ACTION OFF HELIGOLAND. By L. Cecil Jané.
3d.

TURKEY IN EUROPE AND ASIA. 2d.

THE CHRISTIAN ATTITUDE TO WAR. By A. L.
Smith. 2d.

FOOD SUPPLIES IN WAR TIME. By R. H. Rew, C.B.
HOW WE OUGHT TO FEEL ABOUT THE WAR. By
A. V. Dicey, D.C.L. 2d.

THE MAN OF PEACE. By Roy Norton. 2d.

DOES INTERNATIONAL LAW STILL EXIST? By Sir
H. Erle Richards, K.C., K.C.S.I. 2d.

THE LEADERSHIP OF THE WORLD. By F. S.
Marvin. 2d.

THROUGH GERMAN EYES. By E. A. Sonneschein.
2d.

NON-COMBATANTS AND THE WAR. By A. Pearce
Higgins, LL.D. 2d.

**TELEPATHY OR THE SCIENCE OF THOUGHT TRANS-
FERENCE.** By J. C. F. Grumbine. L. N. Fowler
& Co., London.

WAR FACTS AND FIGURES. The British Dominions
General Insurance Co., London.

OWEN AND HIS POETRY. By James A. Roy.
George G. Harrap & Co., London.

WELSH AND HIS POETRY. By John H. Ingram.
George G. Harrap & Co., London.

PATRIOTIC POEMS FOR THE YOUNG. Selected by
S. B. Tait. W. and R. Chambers, Limited,
London.

CLAIRVOYANCE. By J. C. F. Grumbine. L. N.
Fowler & Co., London.

GREAT NAMES IN ENGLISH LITERATURE, VOL. II.
By Edith L. Elias, M.A. George G. Harrap & Co.,
London.

PRACTICAL ENGLISH COMPOSITION. By C. M.
Gerrish, B.A., and Margaret Cunningham.
D. C. Heath & Co., London.

A HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT WORLD. By Hutton
Webster, PH.D. George G. Harrap & Co.,
London.

BOOKS RELATING TO INDIA.

SAKUNTALA AND HER KEEPSAKE. By Roby Datta.
Das Gupta & Co., Collège Street, Calcutta.

THE INDIAN YEAR BOOK. Edited by Dr. Stanley
Reed. Bennet, Coleman & Co., Bombay.

THE UPLIFT MOVEMENT AT SIALKOT, PUNJAB. By
Lala Ganga Ram, B.A., Pleader, Sialkot.

**THE INDIAN LITERARY YEAR BOOK AND AUTHOR'S
WHO'S WHO FOR 1915.** By Prof. N. Mitra, M.A.
Panini Office, Allahabad.

THE DIETETIC TREATMENT OF DIABETES. By Major
B. D. Basu. Panini Office, Allahabad.

**SOUVENIR OF THE PASSIVE RESISTANCE MOVEMENT
IN SOUTH AFRICA, 1906-1914.** "The Indian
Opinion" Office, Phoenix, Natal.

ESOTERIC THEOSOPHY AND PUBLIC EDUCATION. By
Rev. E. W. Thompson, M.A. Wesleyan Mission
Press, Mysore.

THE LIFE AND LIFE-WORK OF J. N. TATA. By
D. E. Wacha. (Second Edition.) Ganesh & Co.,
Madras.

INDIA IN ENGLISH AND INDIAN PERIODICALS.

THE SAIVA SIDDHANTA RELIGIOUS PHILOSOPHY.
By the Rev. H. A. Popley, B.A. ["The Chris-
tian College Magazine," March, 1915.]

HOW I BECAME AN ARYA SAMAJIST. By Frederick
G. Fox, M.D. ["The Vedic Magazine," March,
1915.]

CANOENS AND HIS EPIC OF INDIA. By Mr.
P. Seshadri. ["The Journal of the South
Indian Association."]

**GURU GOVIND SINGH: HIS LIFE, WORK AND
MESSAGE.** [By Saint Nihal Singh. "The Sikh
Review," February, 1915.]

THE CALCUTTA MAIDAN. By R. Herbert. ["The
Chambers' Journal," April, 1915.]

WOMAN'S STATUS IN HINDU SOCIETY. By Mr.
Manmohan Rai Hakumat Rai Desai, B.A.
["The Malabar Quarterly Review," March,
1915.]

THE INDIAN CASTES. By Kundan Lal. ["The
Crucible," March, 1915.]

TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS

THE UNITY OF CIVILISATION.

Mr. F. S. Marvin, writing to a recent number of the *Hibbert Journal*, lays stress on the underlying unity of culture, of interest and of ultimate aim between the nations and says that the present war is largely due to this conception not having sunk deep enough into the Western mind. This conflict should make us realise all the more seriously that Europe is essentially a commonwealth, especially in its western portion, and that though our acts may for the time savagely contradict the truth, yet the common forces are permanent and must steadily grow and subdue the disruptive passions of enemy, suspicion and dislike. Man strives individually towards this goal, and this involves conflict both between single members of every community and between communities as units. But the fullness of his powers can be only attained in community life, and the communities themselves are completed by a community of the whole. Kant saw that the growth of unity was the leading event in human evolution, but he exaggerated the original conflicting elements.

If we assume, as the Stoics assumed, as the Christian Church has always preached, as the greatest modern prophets have foreseen from Pascal and Turgot, from Kant and Goethe to this day, that man is born for ultimate unity and that all real progress consists in and approach to it, then a clear principle appears of which we can understand the roots and by which we may judge the tendency and the validity of all the isolated movements in history. The roots of such a process are intelligible In history as it is now commonly written and taught, there is a mass of insignificant and ephemeral fact and a preponderance beyond all reason of the political aspect, in its branches, dynastic warlike, institutional, while matters of the widest and most profound moment are habitually ignored. It is written and taught as if the civic interest of men were coincident with the human, or at least were the only interest of history. So long as this arbitrary and irrational limitation persists, history must fail both to represent the truth and to fulfil its function as a branch of science in bringing together the various communities of mankind, who are engaged in a common work, irrespective of national differences and divisions History is seen as progress, as soon as the growth of the common factors in humanity is realised. And we shall see that beneath the turmoil of conflict, the outbreaks of savagery and the just certainty of heavy retribution there are uniting forces still at work, stronger than even in the world, and a closer texture of international unity in science, commerce and the arts of life, which may be torn, but cannot be destroyed.

ENGLAND, TURKEY AND INDIA.

Mr. Syed Hossain writing in the February number of the *Asiatic Review* discusses the most consequential feature of Turkey's intervention in the present war, viz., its challenge of the existing relations between England and Islam. To the millions of Indian Mahomedans, who would gladly cherish England's traditional friendship for Islam and with whom British action and policy during the Crimean and the Russo-Turkish Wars are still abiding and grateful memories, the Anglo-Turkish conflict of to-day must be deeply distressing. They are confronted with a psychological struggle in which duty and sentiment are apparently arrayed on opposite sides. The categorical declaration of the Government of India that no religious question is involved in the war and that the British have no design on the holy places of Arabia and Mesopotamia proved most grateful to the Mahomedan community.

But certain organs of English public opinion like the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Manchester Guardian* have been wallowing in ill-informed fulminations against the Caliph and the Caliphate, and have been publishing the speeches of Asquith and Lloyd George needlessly tinged with all the rancour of their Gladstonian prepossessions. In addition the Executive in India has embarked upon a policy of 'practically suppressing the Mussalman Press.' The recent persecution of Mahomed Ali, the editor of the *Comrade*, is untimely and mischievous. "The authentic opinions of a great and loyal community in regard to Anglo-Islamic relations, and the official attitude of the Indian authorities to their responsible expression at a time when feeling ran high and needed ventilation by an able and honest publicist"—both have been very well-tested in the recent incident.

No plea of political exigency can very well be raised for the suppression of such views as we have cited. They are above-board and have their roots in that intellectual acceptance of the British connection, which more than ever in these days of fervid flunkeryism, might be expected to commend itself to British statesmanship. Moreover Great Britain is adding to her Islamic responsibilities that imposes the obligation of an adequate comprehension and conciliation of Moslem sentiment on lines that will be enduring. The shortsightedness of the official policy being pursued in India is patent. It ought to be revised.

THE VALUE OF GERMAN COLONIES.

Though the German colonies are very small in size, if compared with the gigantic colonies of Great Britain, they are relatively large and important possessions; and their total area is considerably more than eight times as large as that of the United Kingdom, and nearly two-and-a-half times as large as the South African Union. Mr. Ellis Barker, the well-known publicist, writes about their value and their future possibilities in the March number of the *United Empire and Colonial Institute Journal*. The German colonies have hitherto cost the Fatherland far more than they have brought in; and it is not improbable that these would soon become exceedingly precious, just as Canada, to which Voltaire sneeringly referred as "the few acres of snow" now contains nearly ten million white men. In her colonial policy, Germany has not looked to immediate profit, and where the English Government would have been satisfied with a straggling village and a shanty, the Germans have built up substantial towns. The German officials have been striving to create in every little colonial town a little Berlin with wide and straight avenues and substantial permanent buildings and at the same time to prevent the exploitation of the people and the waste of the colonial resources by the most minute regulations, eminently adapted to supplement the limited natural resources of Germany and suited to the natural docility of the German population. The consequence was that those who intended to settle in the German colonies found their activities circumscribed at every step by well-intentioned but unsuitable Government regulations, and at the same time they were grossly overtaxed. Intensive exploitation was made impossible by the Government policy of preserving the natural resources of the country unimpaired; and moreover the development of the colonies was hampered by a high-handed policy towards the natives. In the colonies there were found the same paternalism, bureaucratic absolutism and the social shackles from which the colonists had hoped to escape in leaving Germany.

The German colonies possess not only an excellent soil, but vast mineral and timber resources, which as yet have remained practically unutilised. There are plenty of natives whose population comes to about fourteen millions. There are beside a large body of German officials, schoolmasters and missionaries; and in German South West Africa specially there is a considerable body of farmers. But although the white population

is quite insignificant in the colonies, they contain a remarkably large number of post and telegraph offices, schools, etc.; and it is obvious that the small number of Germans dwelling in the colonies will facilitate their development by a new power; there will not be a large body of German irreconcilables, who in course of time may become a danger to the new owners. In spite of mismanagement, the German colonies have gone ahead very fast because of their magnificent latent resources. The exports and railway earnings show great progress. The production of diamonds is very large, and the exports chiefly consist of rubber, copra, hides, skins, ivory, timber, palm oil and cocoa. The commercial and strategic position of the colonies is also very important. Hitherto Germany has been able to hamper the development of British colonies in Africa by a policy of obstruction; when German East Africa is no longer German, Cecil Rhodes' dream of a railway from Cape Town to Cairo can become a reality and the Congo State will acquire a valuable outlet towards the Indian Ocean, and the South African Union will obtain the much needed outlet on the African West Coast.

THE STORY OF BHARATAMATA.

An allegorical and instructive story is contributed in the current number of the *Presidency College Magazine*, Calcutta, about the history of our Motherland by Mr. G. S. Dutt of the Indian Civil Service. Bharatamata had many children, some of them very strong and others very clever and always quarrelling among themselves. "Once it happened that some neighbours—sons of one Islam—were fascinated by the beauty and charm of the abode of Bharatamata, scrambled with her sons for a place therein; and the mother kind and generous as was her wont adopted them even as her sons, and allowed them a home in her abode—the more so as she hoped that these might be able to reduce her unruly sons to order.

"As time passed on, these foster children of the mother became as dear to her as her other children; and one of them, who went by the name of Akbar the Great, emulated the deeds of Asoka, nay even surpassed them; and others . . . in their intense love for the mother adorned the abode of the mother with great and beautiful buildings, which became for ever after the wonders of the world.

"But the ill-luck of the mother was not yet at an end, and her children old and young fell out

again, as of old and began to curse and kill each other In utter despair, Bharatamata appealed to her friend Britannia and sought her aid in reducing her own unruly children to peace and order; and Britannia, ever ready to assist those who were in need of help sent some of her best and wisest sons to act as *guru* to the quarrelsome children of Bharatamata—and she called the *guru* the Governor-General.

" And one day, the naughty ones rose in rebellion and well-nigh killed the well-meaning *guru* and his assistants but they failed in their foolish adventure.

" And in spite of these occasional foolish acts of violence on the part of the children, the wise *guru* was true to his duties and was not vindictive, and Britannia, who knew well how to correct unruly children, did not lose hope in ultimate success in delivering Bharatamata from her age-old distress.

" As the years passed on, the quiet work of the *guru* began to bear fruit and the wiser children began to discern that they have made their mother unhappy by their dissensions and the number of these wise children grew more day by day.

" And thus at last Bharatamata was happy; for her children had been well-handled by their *guru* and now they knew what was for their own good and had learnt to love each other.

" Now a monster called Prussia even as vile and vicious as Ravana of old; and after the fashion of that monster outraged a fair damsel of the name of Belgia who was under Britannia's sisterly protection And as Britannia had come to the help of Bharatamata when she was in sore need of help, Bharatamata now sent thousands of her own eager sons to the help of Britannia across the seas. And lo! these sons of Bharatamata were even as strong and brave and high souled as Bhima, Arjuna, Karna, Drona and Bhishma of old—only they had now received other names.

" The united sons of these two great sisters with their overwhelming strength overpowered and slew the greatest and cruelest monster the world had known.

" Fair Belgia like Sita of old was avenged."

BASSORAH: THE VENICE OF THE EAST.

Mr. J. Niven contributes an interesting and glowing description of Bassorah over which the Union Jack has lately been hoisted to the April number of *Chambers' Journal*. The Shat-el-Arab on which the city is situated is a broad and turbulent river formed by the confluence of the Tigris and the Euphrates, and forms a sort of natural boundary between Turkish Arabia and Southern Persia. At its junction with the Karun river lies the town of Mohammerah, an important and busy port. A little way up the river we come to Bassorah, the birthplace of Sindbad the Sailor, and once greater and more prosperous than even Baghdad itself. As the town comes into view from the steamer the date gardens become more and more numerous and everywhere are seen signs of cultivation and care. The land round Bassorah needs only adequate irrigation to become the granary of Europe; and Sir William Willcox has declared that the soil is even more fertile than the valley of the Nile and would repay cultivation even more generously. Remains of ancient canals which must have been in use, when Babylon was at the height of its prosperity, can still be found; and even during the torrid heat of summer, a keen air blows over the whole region. "A breath of sweetness is wafted from a distant beanfield, recalling memories of home; the sicklier perfume of the mimosa makes the air heavy and languid, the scent of the myrtle speaks of purity and peace and the orange blossom sheds its rich fragrance on every side. There is no grass; but fields of clover grow in prodigal abundance; the canal banks are pink with roses, the mulberry trees are bent under their load of fruits; and Nature seems to be casting her gifts in prodigal profusion."

Under the rule of a just and well ordered Government, there would be almost no limit to the possible development of such a land as this. With improved methods of communication, the power to build and irrigate, and the prospect of permanent occupation traders would increase in number, and trade might be developed on a large scale; the heat is fairly dry, and the winter and early spring are delightful. There is no rainy season and rarely are there dull skies and heavy clouds. The Turkish Government oppressing the cultivator and the trader alike has passed away; and under the British the city is to enjoy a long spell of unbroken peace and prosperity.

THE TURKS IN EGYPT.

Lieutenant-General F. H. Tyrrell, writing in the February issue of the *United Service Magazine*, traces the growth and decline of the Turkish hold over Egypt ever since the beginning of the 16th century. Ever since the conquest of the valley of the Nile by the Persian Cambyses in the 6th century B.C., the Egyptian people have been the abject subjects of alien races and of foreign governments. For twelve centuries it remained a province of the Persian, Greek and Roman Empires and of the Arabian Caliphate; then it regained its rank as an independent state under the Arab rule of the Fatimite Caliphs; and in the strenuous struggle between Christendom and Islam which was renewed by the Crusades, Egypt became under the sceptre of Saladin and his successors a great military power and the bulwark of the Moslem world against the aggressiveness of the Franks. Gradually the Mameluke soldiery, who had been formed into a power in the state by the House of Saladin, elected one of their own captains and ruled Egypt for six centuries, for three of which they were the absolute masters of the country, while for the other three they governed it under the suzerainty of the Ottoman Sultan. The Mamelukes were recruited entirely by purchased slaves of Turkish, Tartar or Circassian race; European renegades were also enrolled in the Corps, but the children of the Mamelukes by Arab or Egyptian women were not admitted to the ranks. They served only on horseback; and constituted an army of cavalry; and like most Orientals they relied more on individual prowess and skill-at-arms than on cohesion and co-operation. The infantry of their army was composed of Syrian, Arab and Moorish mercenaries, who were called Corsan and by negro-slaves from the Sudan who were called Jalban. For a long time the Mamelukes held a good record; they expelled the crusaders from Palestine; they destroyed the last vestige of the Christian kingdom of Armenia, and they added all Syria to their dominions. They repulsed from their borders the Mughal hordes of Chengiz Khan and even stayed the course of Timur.

The Mameluke Sultan of Egypt was known in Europe as the Grand Soldan and monkish theologians identified Grand Cairo with the Babylon of the Apocalypse. The discovery of the Cape route put a complete stop to the trade of the Arab merchants with China and India, and the Mamelukes with the aid of the Venetians made a vigorous effort to remedy the new state of things.

The Ottoman Sultan Selim the First with the help of his Janissary infantry and a formidable train of artillery defeated the Mamelukes, but confirmed them in the charge of their districts and placed them under the command of a Pasha, whom he installed at Cairo as his Viceroy in Egypt. The Turkish Pasha was assisted by a Divan or Council like the Imperial Divan at Constantinople. The Turks sought to extend their conquests far southward. They occupied Massowah and made it into a Pashalik, intending to use it as a place of arms and a base for the invasion of the Christian kingdom of Abyssinia. They also occupied Aden and from thence despatched a naval and military expedition against the European settlements on the west coast of India, which, however, failed to achieve any success.

The existence of Egypt had been almost forgotten in Europe when interest in its fortunes was suddenly re-awakened by the French invasion of its desolate and unfrequented shores. French occupation completely changed the old order of things and when Mehemet Ali grasped the reins of power he had almost a *tabula rasa* to work upon; he made Egypt an autonomous state and paved the way for its eventual absorption into the European political system. Except the Khedivial family there are now few Turks to be found in Egypt to-day and the only traces of Turkish occupation are to be seen in the damaged state of the Sphinx and other ancient monuments which were wantonly made a target for Turkish cannon and in the Turkish military vocabulary which is still in use in the Egyptian army.

ENGLISH vs. AMERICAN STUDENT LIFE.

Mr. C. T. Cooper writing in a recent number of *Educational Foundations* of New York tries to explain American Student life to Englishmen. The term 'college' is applied in America without fear or favour to many varieties of institutions; and the American University as a rule embraces a wider range of studies, and a broader outlook with a larger number of students and subjects. The usual steps in American education are grammar or public school training, then high-school or preparatory work, and then a strictly specialised course in University technical or professional training. These institutions are diverse in the kinds of students admitted, being cross divided for men only, for men and women, and for women only. Though in principle one may admit the ideality of co-education, in experience and practice Americans can hardly be said to be unani-

mous in their verdict for training men and women in the same class-rooms or upon the same campus.

The American College-student is vouchsafed greater freedom in electives especially in the latter years of his studies, but he has to endure much closer restrictions as to the manner of his study and examinations. The number and variety of subjects which a student has to take up are somewhat overwhelming, and the idea seems to be to give a young man a gossiping acquaintance with a score of subjects and a thorough knowledge of none. In the emancipation of the average College and University man from the slavery of the curriculum, the English and the German systems of intellectual *laissez faire* are highly commendable and in some senses superior to the American plan. In the matter of moral discipline, the American student's personal life falls into lawlessness or worse evils due more to full-blooded boisterousness than to downright viciousness.

The American student is clothed with a glorious freedom out of lecture-hours going and coming almost as he will; but his vices are as a rule wholesome; and his teacher treats them on the principle that "it is better to laugh with Ariosto in the sunshine than to snicker with Aretino in the shadow." These self-same students show their passion for reality, elemental squareness and high moral endeavour by organising large bodies of their fellow-undergraduates for social betterment of the slums in the cities and towns of their colleges, and in many other ways associating themselves with spontaneous enthusiasm, with moments of reform political, social and educational within and without the college.

The social strata of American students would be corresponding quite generally to that found in the Board Schools and newer Universities or in the preparatory schools of England. Social relationships are formed more easily in America than in England in school days. Further the American student has much less time for the cultivation of social life than has his English cousin. Finally the contrast between English and American education as to its ability in turning out of academic halls, statesmen and public men has been in the past overwhelmingly in favour of the Britisher. The State and College in America have been separated about as far as the Church has been dissociated from a labour-union. But the last decade has seen a decided change in this attitude of indifference among collegians towards a political alliance.

ANTIQUITY OF HINDU CHEMISTRY.

Dr. P. C. Ray of Calcutta lectured under the auspices of the Punjab University on the antiquity of Hindu Chemistry, the full text of the speech being published in the current number of the *Vedic Magazine*. Two thousand five hundred years ago the sage Atreya taught medicine to Janaka Komara Vaccha, a famous specialist in midwifery and the allied sciences. In the *Brihat Samhita* of Varahamihira (517 A.D.) we also come across preparations of iron and mercury recommended as among being the best of tonics; and to Patanjali is ascribed the authorship of a treatise on the metallurgy of iron. The cultivation of chemistry equally received a stimulus as an adjunct of the Yoga philosophy; and later on chemistry became more and more closely associated with the philosophy of the *Tantras*. The history of Hindu chemistry is emphatically the history of the progress of chemical operations grouped round the preparation of mercury; and indeed in ascertaining the age of a medical work or of a chemical *Tantra*, it may be laid down as a fairly safe guide, whether any mention of the use of mercury occurs in it and if so, in what particular form. The earliest recognised medical treatise in which the therapeutic use of mercury is systematically recommended is the *Siddha Yoga* of Vrinda about 900 A.D., while in Europe mercurial remedies were first introduced by Paracelsus in the sixteenth century.

The necessity for experiment and observation is strictly enjoined in most of these old works; and we read that those alone are to be regarded as real teachers who can show by experiment what they teach; and special stress is laid on rules for the dissection of a dead body and in the use of surgical instruments. As regards the marvellous metallurgical skill attained by the Hindus, it is enough to point out the iron pillar adjoining the Kutub Minar; and we might unhesitatingly believe in the priority of the Hindus in technological knowledge. They were also evidently the first to extract zinc from its ore. And very useful information regarding knowledge of the gems and the testing of precious stones occurs in the *Brihat Samhita* and in the chapter entitled *Ratnapariksha* in the *Garuda Purana*. Kanada's theory of the propagation of sound is in consonance with the modern conception based upon experimental data; and no less remarkable is his statement that heat and light are only different forms of the same essential substance.

THE RAJPUT STRUGGLE.

Professor Jadu Nath Sirkar, writing in the April number of the *Modern Review*, describes the heroic defence made by the Rahtors of Jodhpur against the aggressions of Aurangzib which stemmed the tide of Mughal advance and began its downward career. The Jodhpur territory was traversed by the shortest and easiest trade-route from the Mughal capital to the rich manufacturing city of Ahmedabad; and in Jodhpur was also situated Pali, a half-way house between Ahmedabad and Ajmer and the chief commercial mart of Western Rajputana. Aurangzib thought that if such a province could be annexed, he could enable Mughal traders and armies to pass easily from the capital to Western India and the Arabian Sea, the proud lord of Udaipur would be taken in flank and a long wedge of Muslim territory would be driven right across Rajputana, cleaving it into two isolated halves, which could be crushed in detail. Moreover, Jodhpur was the foremost Hindu State of Northern India at this time and the centre of Hindu opposition to the Imperial policy of temple-destruction and the *Jeziya*.

In 1678 died the Rahtor chief, Maharaja Jaswant Singh, at Jamrud when commanding the Mughal posts in the Khyber Pass. Aurangzib immediately appointed Muslim *Kotwals*, *Faujدارs* and *Amins* for Jodhpur, and himself set out for Ajmir to overawe opposition and to direct the military operations. A pretender was invested with the *gadi*, but the Mughal administrators and generals in occupation of the country were retained there. Meanwhile Durga Das, the hereditary minister of Jaswant, whose constant heart, Mughal gold could not seduce and Mughal arms could not daunt, championed the cause of their infant master Ajit Singh, took counsel with his brother-Sirdars and quickly organised resistance. The Imperial armies shrank from provoking 'the death-loving Rajputs' to extreme courses and at first tried persuasion but in vain. Ajit Singh's name became the rallying cry of the Rahtor legitimists and even Maharaja Raj Singh of Mewar fraternised with the Jodhpurians. He prepared for the invasion by abandoning the low country where he could not stand the Mughal artillery and retired to the fastnesses of the Aravalli hills whither they could not penetrate. Then began a five years' struggle of mutual raids and recriminations; and from Prince Akbar's letters we learn how effectually the Rajputs succeeded in creating a terror of their prowess. The spectre of his father's ghost appeared to the Emperor suddenly

in the shape of Prince Akbar who was seduced into open rebellion by the emissaries of Raj Singh (1680). But Aurangzib's craft overcame all obstacles and the rebel prince was forced to fly as a fugitive into the hills of Guzerat. It was again the gallant Durga Das that defended the refugees at great peril to his own person and chivalrously undertook to conduct him to the Mahratta court. Akbar's rebellion brought unhopd-for relief to the Rajputs; it disconcerted the Mughal plan of war at a time when their net was drawing closer.

The Rajput war was a drawn game, so far as actual fighting was concerned. . . . But Akbar's junction with Sambhaji raised a more formidable danger to the Empire. . . . The Mughal hold on Marwar was consequently relaxed, the garrisons were depleted and the higher commanders withdrawn. . . . The Rahtor system of warfare under Durga Das' able guidance was a precursor of the Mahratta. . . . It spread by sympathy farther and farther. The elements of lawlessness thus set moving overflowed fitfully into Malwa and endangered the vitally important Mughal road through Malwa into the Deccan. . . . This was the harvest that Akbar's great grandson reaped from sowing the whirlwind of religious persecution and suppression of nationalities."

THE PRESS IN JAPAN AND INDIA.

Mr. Morgan Young writing from Japan to the April number of *East and West* draws an instructive comparison between the Japanese Press and the Indian. Both are exotic growths with however radically different fruits. The number of ideographs in common use in the Japanese language makes hand-setting painfully slow and distribution slower still in comparison with the facility attained in the European or Sanskrit languages. The Japanese papers enjoy a greater circulation as compared with the Indian ones; possibly because the people are of a more busy and inquisitive temperament in Japan, their system of government stimulates party excitement, the ability to read is more widely disseminated, and the price of a paper can be squeezed even out of a small wage. The popular voice in Japan is sometimes very effective, the later two wars having turned equally the heads of the editor and the reader. The 'go on with the war' riot is frequent and the Japanese Press is ready to declare war on the United States or to annex China at a moment's notice. It is most unsparing in its denunciations and plunges sometimes light-heartedly into the vilest slanders. But in some directions, however, it is more absolutely muzzled than the Indian press and the extent to which censorship goes is sometimes very much marked by great and curious diversity of subjects. The propagation of

socialistic principles is also a criminal offence which would be attended with immediate abolitions and confiscations. The ability with which the Japanese papers are conducted is not more remarkable than in India, but their larger circulation enables them to command a far more extensive news service than the Indian papers can ever aspire to. But the foreign telegrams are very often misinterpreted—probably the result of expansion by the receiver as well as of inability to grasp the true import of the message. On the whole the Japanese press achieves higher flights of misinformation on Western matters and its readers swallow it with practically no corrective.

Foreign newspapers in Japan, like the Anglo-Indian press in India, wield far more influence than their limited circulation would suggest. In Japan state-subsidising of the Press is worked more secretly and is largely bestowed on the showing of the Japanese people and government in a favourable light to foreigners. Whereas in India the subsidies are for the cultivation of native opinion. Every Japanese paper has to provide a large pecuniary deposit as a sort of guarantee fund for pains and penalties, which condition is regarded as a great hardship and as an infringement of liberty in India; and the seizure of papers is likewise a common occurrence; while the 'prison editor' is still a regular institution. The popularity of vernacular journalism both in India and Japan is out of all proportion to its pecuniary rewards.

THE PEACE OF THE WORLD.

Mr. H. G. Wells writing in the March number of the *English Review* discusses in a scientific and convincing way in which peace may be organised and established out of the settlement of this war. On the whole, most of us want peace. But hardly anyone is without a lurking bellicose sentiment, a lurking admiration for the vivid impacts, the imaginative appeals and the hard blows of war. People who really care for war and fix their minds upon soldiering are not perhaps very numerous, and in their faddist atmosphere, they call everything that is not crude and forcible in life "degenerate." The heavy envy of everything as pleasure, beauty, delicacy and leisure which is the dominant characteristic of the pro-military type can be removed only by an attack upon their sense of self-righteousness and intolerance. There should be a "sedulous propaganda of the truth about war, a steadfast resolve to keep the pain of warfare alive in the

nerves of the careless, to keep the stench of war under the else indifferent nose."

What is now, with each week of the present struggle becoming more practicable is the setting up of a new assembly that will take the place of various embassies and diplomatic organizations of a mediæval pattern and tradition which have hitherto conducted in international affairs. This war must end in a public settlement to which all the belligerents will set their hands. This settlement will almost certainly be attained at a conference of representatives of the various foreign offices involved.

If such a body and such a great alliance of world powers should become possible, much else in the direction of world pacification becomes also possible. But the whole mass of those whose business has been the direction of international relations is likely to be either sceptical or actively hostile to such an experiment. All the foreign officers and ministers, the diplomatists universally, the politicians who have specialised in national assertion, and the courts which have symbolised and embodied it, are all likely to be against so revolutionary a change. But the change that would come, would be a clearing-house of international relationships and would remove the complex tangle of relationships, mis-statements and misconceptions arising from the ill-co-ordinated activities of the present system of double agents.

A conference confined purely to the belligerents will be in fact a conference not even representative of themselves. It will be tainted with all the traditional policies, aggressions, subterfuges and suspicions that led up to the war; and it is just here that the value of neutral participation will come in. And whatever ambitions the neutral powers may have of their own, it may be said generally that they are keenly interested in preventing the settlement from degenerating into a deal in points of vantage for any further aggressions in any direction. It is necessary for this purpose that the manufacture of war-material should cease to be a private industry and a source of profit to private individuals. If the making of arms should become a state monopoly and completely be under Government control, the definition of a permissible maximum of strength on land and sea for all the high contracting powers will be made into a practicable step. But for the realisation of these schemes, there must be an immense body of opinion; then initiative may break out effectively everywhere; failing it they will be fruitless everywhere.

BEYOND THE BATTLEFIELDS.

One of the illusions common to all of us is that the conclusion of the present war will go automatically to bring about universal peace, freedom and deliverance. Mr. W. C. Anderson, M.P., writing in the last issue of the *Socialist Review*, surveys the problem of Peace that confronts us and urges the workers of Great Britain to give a lead in this direction to the world. He says that we must base our hopes of future peace not on this or that change in the social machinery, important as that may be, but on the education and growth of international democracy with its wider faith and vision. Although the racial passions roused and the heritage of hate left by the war may subside slowly, the International Socialist movement must nevertheless be reorganised at the earliest possible moment. We must work for a Europe that will be a people's Europe and not a diplomats' Europe. It will be necessary in the interests of justice and peace that there should be autonomous life for the smaller states and that national frontiers should bear a close correspondence to national sentiment. The Prime Minister in his speech made a few months ago at Dublin has thrown overboard the very things that European statesmanship has pursued and put faith in, and has professed himself ready to abandon, the old catchwords and illusions of diplomacy and to substitute a partnership of states based on the public will, the public conscience of Europe.

An international federal system applied to Europe would require not only an International Court, but a Supernational Parliament made up of representatives from the different states. Such a Parliament would probably solve many of the problems that now darken Europe and threaten it with destruction and would relieve humanity of the curse and cost of militarism and free it from the web of endless suspicion and distrust. The New Europe would have no room for heel-clanging, sabre-rattling, peace-disturbing autocrats; for militarists with their big flag of force and their crude notions that nations are exalted by enormous armies and navies, and for cosmopolitan financiers whose exploiting operations usually described as peaceful penetration have frequently brought countries to the brink of war.

CENTRAL ASIAN STUDIES.

M. Sylvain Levi, the famous French Orientalist, writes in a recent number of the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* about the happy spirit of harmony which now seems to inspire Central Asian Studies. Western and Eastern explorers—English, French, German, Russian and Japanese have all been working together. England can be proud of having led the way. The glory of the first and the most brilliant discoveries will for ever remain attached to the name of Sir Aurel Stein, who has given proof of the highest abilities in the most different directions, as a philologist, as an archaeologist and as an explorer. There has grown up an extensive family of fellow-workers bound together by intimacy and the need of mutual help. Nobody can do anything of value quite alone in this most extraordinary confluence of thoughts and religions. The most famous achievements in this direction are Professor Gauthiot's *Sogdian Grammar* which is now complete; Professor Foucher's second volume on *Gandhara Art*, a masterpiece of erudition, taste and *finesse*; and Jules Bloch's beginning of a critical history of the Aryan vernaculars. But the most prominent of all the fruits of research has been the unearthing of the ancient Tokharian language.

Tokharian was the language of the small kingdom of Kucha in the 7th century A.D., a flourishing and celebrated state lying on the way from Kashgar to China and directly connected with Khotan. The political history of Kucha is perfectly clear to us from the Chinese annals since the first century B.C. It was an Aryan city so far as race is indicated by language; and in structure the Tokharian is closely related to the languages of Western Europe, particularly to Italo-Celtic. The works written in that language are in all instances drawn from Sanskrit originals. Hinayana Buddhism was prevalent in the kingdom, and possibly to a little extent its worst side, the Tantric or magic one. But the product most properly characteristic of Tokharian literature is a peculiar kind of work, being in some measure both narrative and drama. *Yatras*, processions with some dramatic performances were popular in Central Asia; Kucha must have been particularly fond of them, as there are so many fragments of such dramas.

QUESTIONS OF IMPORTANCE

THE DEFENCE OF INDIA ACT.

The following is the full text of the Bill as introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council and passed last month—a bill to provide for special measures to secure the public safety and the defence of British India and for the more speedy trial of certain offences :—

Whereas owing to the existing state of war it is expedient to provide for special measures to secure the public safety and the defence of British India and for the more speedy trial of certain offences, it is hereby enacted as follows :—

L. (1) This Act shall be called the Defence of India (Criminal Law Amendment) Act, 1915.

(2) It extends to the whole of British India including British Baluchistan, the Santhal Parganas and district of Angul.

(3) This section and section 2 shall come into operation at once. The Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, direct that the rest of the Act shall come into operation in any province or part thereof on such date as may be specified in such notification.

(4) This Act shall be in force during the continuance of the present war and for a period of six months thereafter:

Provided that the expiration of this Act shall not affect the validity of anything done in pursuance of it and any person convicted under this Act may be punished as if it had continued in force and all prosecutions and other legal proceedings pending under this Act at the time of the expiration thereof may be completed and carried into effect, and the sentences carried into execution as if this Act had not expired.

2. (1) The Governor-General in Council may make rules for the purpose of securing the public safety and the defence of British India and as to the powers and duties of public servants and other persons in furtherance of that purpose.

In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, rules under this section may be made—

(a) to prevent persons communicating with the enemy or obtaining information which may be used for that purpose;

(b) to secure the safety of His Majesty's forces and ships and to prevent the prosecution of any purpose likely to jeopardise the success of the operations of His Majesty's forces or the forces of His Allies or to assist the enemy;

(c) to prevent the spread of false reports or reports likely to cause disaffection or alarm or to prejudice His Majesty's relations with Foreign Powers or to promote feelings of enmity and hatred between different classes of His Majesty's subjects;

(d) to empower any civil or military authority to issue such orders and take such measures as may be necessary to secure the safety of railways, ports, dockyards, telegraphs, post offices, works for the supply of gas, electric light or water, sources of water supply, all means of communication and areas which may be

notified by such civil or military authority, as areas which it is necessary to safeguard in the public interest.

(e) to enable any naval or military authority to take possession of any property, moveable or immovable, for naval or military purposes, and to issue such orders and do such acts in respect of any property as may be necessary to secure the public safety or the defence of British India or any part thereof;

(f) to empower any civil or military authority where in the opinion of such authority, there are reasonable grounds for suspecting that any person has acted, is acting or is about to act in a manner prejudicial to the public safety, to direct that such person shall not enter, reside or remain in any area specified in writing by such authority, or that such person shall reside and remain in any area as specified, or that he shall conduct himself in such manner or abstain from such acts, or take such order with any property in his possession or under his control, as such authority may direct;

(g) to prohibit or regulate the possession of explosives, inflammable substances, arms and all other munitions of war;

(h) to prohibit anything likely to prejudice the training or discipline of His Majesty's forces and to prevent any attempt to tamper with the loyalty of persons in the service of His Majesty or to dissuade persons from entering the service of his Majesty;

(i) to empower any civil or military authority to enter and search any place if such authority has reason to believe that such place is being used for any purpose prejudicial to the public safety or to the defence of British India and to seize anything found there which he has reason to believe is being used for any such purpose;

(j) to provide for the arrest of persons contravening or reasonably suspected of contravening any rule made under this section and prescribing the duties of public servants and other persons in regard to such arrests;

(k) to prescribe the duties of public servants and other persons as to preventing any contravention of rules made under this section and to prohibit any attempt to screen persons contravening any such rule from punishment; and

(l) otherwise to prevent assistance being given to the enemy or the successful prosecution of the war being endangered.

(2) Rules made under this section may provide that any contravention thereof or of any order issued under the authority of any such rule shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to seven years, or with fine, or with both, or if the intention of the person so contravening any such rule or order is to assist the King's enemies or to wage war against the King may provide that such contravention shall be punishable with death, transportation for life or im-

prisonment for a term which may extend to ten years, to any of which punishments fine may be added.

(3) All rules made under this section shall be published in the *Gazette of India* and shall thereupon have effect as if enacted in this Act.

3. (1) The local Government may by order in writing direct that any person accused of anything which is an offence in virtue of any rule made under section 2, or accused of any offence punishable with death, transportation or imprisonment for a term which may extend to seven years, or of criminal conspiracy to commit, or of abetting, or of attempting to commit or abet any such offence shall be tried by Commissioners appointed under this Act.

(2) Orders under sub-section (1) may be made in respect of all persons accused of any offence referred to in that sub-section, or in respect of any class of persons so accused, or in respect of persons or classes of persons accused of any particular offence therein referred to or accused of any class of such offences.

(3) No order under sub-section (1) shall be made in respect of or be deemed to include any person who has been committed under the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, for trial before a High Court, or in whose case an order for trial has been made under section 6 of the Indian Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1908, but, save as aforesaid, an order under that sub-section may be made in respect of or may include any person accused of any offence referred to therein whether such offence was committed before or after the commencement of this Act.

4. (1) Commissioners for the trial of persons under this Act shall be appointed by the local Government.

(2) Such Commissioners may be appointed for the whole province or any part thereof or for the trial of any particular accused person or class of accused persons.

(3) All trials under this Act shall be held by three Commissioners, of whom at least two shall be persons who have served as Sessions Judges or Additional Sessions Judges for a period of one year, or are persons qualified under section 2 of the Indian High Courts Act, 1861, for appointment as Judges of a High Court or are Advocates of a Chief Court or pleaders of ten years' standing.

5. (1) Commissioners appointed under this Act may take cognizance of offences without the accused being committed to them for trial and, in trying accused persons, shall, subject to any rules made by the local Government in this behalf, follow the procedure, prescribed by the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, for the trial of warrant cases by magistrates:

Provided that such Commissioners shall make a memorandum only of the substance of the evidence of each witness examined, and shall not be bound to adjourn any trial for any purpose unless such adjournment is in their opinion necessary in the interests of justice.

(2) In the event of any difference of opinion between the Commissioners the opinion of the majority shall prevail.

6. (1) The judgment of Commissioners appointed under the Act shall be final and conclusive and such Commissioners may pass upon any person convicted by them any sentence authorised by law for the punishment of the offence of which such person is convicted and no order of confirmation shall be necessary in the case of any sentence passed by them.

(2) If in any trial under this Act it is proved that the accused person has committed any offence whether referred to in section 3 or in any order under that section or not, the Commissioners may convict such accused person of such offence and pass any sentence authorised by law for the punishment thereof.

7. The provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, so far as they are inconsistent with the special procedure prescribed by or under this Act, shall not apply to the proceedings of Commissioners appointed under this Act, but save as otherwise provided, that, Code shall apply to such proceedings and the Commissioners shall have all the powers conferred by the Code on a Court of Session exercising original jurisdiction.

8. (1) Notwithstanding the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, or of any other law for the time being in force, or of anything having the force of law by whatsoever authority made or done, there shall be no appeal from any order or sentence of Commissioner appointed under this Act, and no Court shall have authority to revise any such order or sentence, or to transfer any case from such Commissioners, or to make any order under section 491 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, or have any jurisdiction of any kind in respect of any proceedings under this Act.

(2) Nothing in sub-section (1) shall be deemed to affect the power of the Governor-General in Council or the Local Government to make orders under section 401 or 402 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, in respect of persons sentenced by Commissioners under this Act.

9. Notwithstanding anything contained in the India Evidence Act, 1872, where the statement of any person has been recorded by a Magistrate, such statement may be admitted in evidence in any trial before Commissioners appointed under this Act if such person is dead or cannot be found or is incapable of giving evidence, and the Commissioners are of opinion that such death, disappearance or incapacity has been caused in the interest of the accused.

10. The Local Government may by notification in the local official Gazette, make rules providing for—

(i) the times and places at which Commissioners appointed under this Act may sit;

(ii) the procedure of such Commissioners including the appointment and powers of their Presidents, and the procedure to be adopted in the event of any Commissioner being prevented from attending throughout the trial of any accused person;

(iii) the manner in which prosecutions before such Commissioners shall be conducted, and the appointment and powers of persons conducting such prosecutions;

(iv) the execution of sentences passed by such Commissioners;

(v) the temporary custody or release on bail of persons referred to or included in any order made under sub-section (1) of section 3 and for the transmission of records to the Commissioners; and

(vi) any matter which appears to the Local Government to be necessary for carrying into effect the provisions of the Act relating or ancillary to trials before Commissioners.

11. No order under this Act shall be called in question in any Court, and no suit, prosecution or other legal proceeding shall lie against any person for anything which is in good faith done or intended to be done under this Act.

UTTERANCES OF THE DAY

SIR HARCOURT BUTLER ON THE HINDU UNIVERSITY.

Sir Harcourt Butler, in introducing the Hindu University Bill last month in the Imperial Legislative Council, said :—

‘My Lord,—I move to introduce the Benares Hindu University Bill. It is the earnest desire of the University Committee that this measure may be placed upon the statute book during the Viceroyalty of your Excellency, with whose name the University will be for ever associated. It is the bare truth that without your Excellency's constant interest, support and approval this measure could not have been introduced to-day. By a series of compromises the Government and Society have arrived at conclusions which, I hope, may take the measure out of the domain of controversy. It is intended to publish the Bill now for general information, take the Select Committee stage and pass into law during the September sessions. Before I go further I must congratulate the Committee, and especially the Maharaja Bahadur of Darbhanga, Mrs. Besant, Dr. Sunderlal, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, Hon. Rai Bahadur Ganga Pershad Varma, Sir Gooroo Das Banerjee, Dr. Rash Behari Ghose and outside the Committee such active helpers as the Maharaja of Bikanir and the Maharaja of Benares, on the success which has already crowned their efforts. I need not review the history of the movement which resulted in proposals for a Hindu University at Benares and a Moslem University at Aligarh. I will deal with results that have emerged from long discussion. The facts are well known. But I will confidently say this, that if anyone had predicted ten years ago that the idea of a University of this kind, then in the air, would take practical shape he simply would not have been believed. The University Commission, an influential body, recently pronounced against such a University, and there was widespread opposition and hostility to any scheme which threatened to cut into existing territorial Universities. It would seem incredible ten years ago that the Government of India should associate itself with a movement of this kind. That difficulties have been overcome is in a large measure due to a genuine spirit of co-operation which has inspired the University Committee. My Lord, this is no ordinary occasion; we are watching to-day the birth of a new, and many hope better, type of

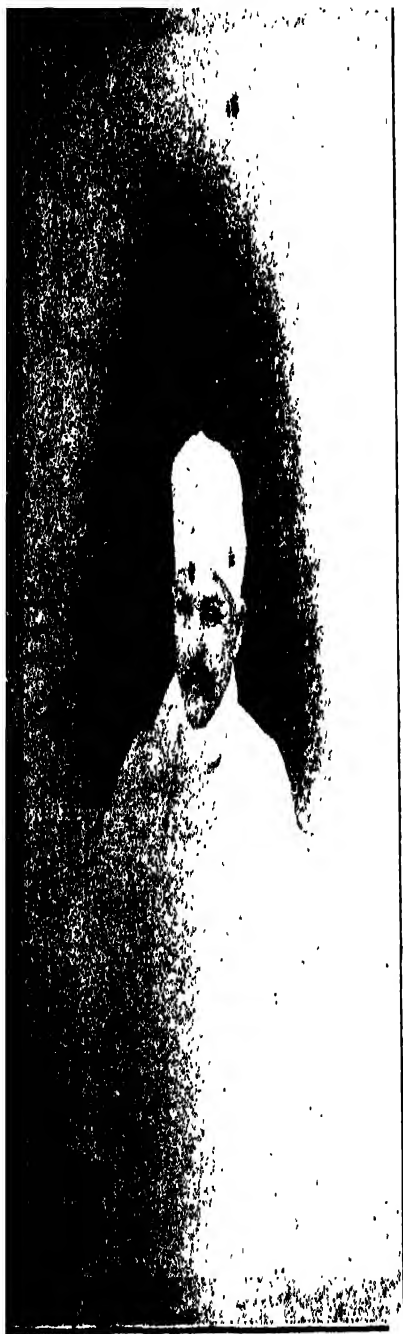
University. The main features of this University, which distinguish it from the existing Universities, will be first that it will be a teaching and residential University; secondly, that, while it will be open to all castes and creeds, it will insist upon religious instruction for Hindus; and thirdly, that it will be conducted and managed by the Hindu community and almost entirely by non-officials. I say that this is a new type and many hope better type of University. Let not this be taken as disparaging the work of existing Universities. That would indeed be gross ingratitude and sheer injustice. India owes much to her Universities in every department of intellectual life and energy. They were based on the latest model; the London University then recently founded and much admired and only lately condemned by the great Commission on University Education in London as fundamentally defective. The best minds in India are, I think, now in agreement that teaching and residential Universities are the special need of India to-day. At the same time there is naturally very little knowledge in the country of what a teaching and residential University is. To this want of knowledge I attribute much of the criticism which has been levelled against the constitution of the Benares Hindu University. The conditions which are appropriate and necessary in a teaching and residential University have been viewed away through glasses of minds habituated to existing Universities. This is only natural in the circumstances of India. I wish it were possible to say in a few words what a teaching and residential University really means. Probably the best idea will be obtained from Cardinal Newman's idea of a University. May I quote a passage from the report of the Commission on University Education in London, the most authoritative statement of modern times on University education. It runs as follows :—“In the first place it is essential that regular students of a University should be able to work in intimate and constant association with their fellow students, not only of the same but of different faculties, and also in close contact with their teachers.” The University would be organized on this basis and should regard it as the ordinary and normal state of things. This is

impossible, however, when any considerable proportion of students are not fitted by previous training to receive University education and therefore do not and cannot take their place in the common life of the University as a community of teachers and students, but, as far as their intellectual education is concerned, continue in a state of pupilage and receive instruction of much the same kind as at school, though under conditions of greater individual freedom. It is good that students should be brought together if only in this way, and Newman, writing in 1852, even went so far as to say: "I protest to you, gentlemen, that if I had to choose between a so-called University which dispensed with residence and tutorial superintendence and gave its degrees to any person who passed an examination in a wide range of subjects and a University which had no professors or examinations at all but merely brought a number of young men together for three or four years and then sent them away, as the University of Oxford is said to have done some sixty years since—if I were asked which of these two methods was the better for the discipline of the intellect, which of the two courses was more successful in training, moulding, enlarging the mind, which sent out men more fitted for their secular duties, which produced better public men, men of the world, men whose names would descend to posterity, I have no hesitation in giving the preference to that University which did nothing over that which exacted of its members an acquaintance with every science under the sun." Nevertheless this is only one side of the question, and in any case Newman does not refer to the kind of student life that can be reproduced in London; but for this very reason it is more essential that in such University as London can have, students and teachers should be brought together in living intercourse in the daily work of the University. From the time an undergraduate enters the University he should find himself a member of the community in which he has his part to play. Teaching and learning should be combined through active and personal co-operation of teachers and students, their association on more or less fraternal lines. That is the keynote of a teaching and residential University. The University does not aim at mere intellectual attainment overhung by examinations. It is the way of life and the way of corporate life. Those of us who have been at Oxford and Cambridge can appreciate the force and meaning of Newman's vivid words. But Oxford and Cambridge

are not the only models. There is much to be learned in India from other Universities which are more definitely practical in aim. They are all, however, alike in this, that they pursue an outlook on life from a higher atmosphere, concentrate thought and, by friction of mind, get truer perspectives, no matter whether the dominant note be philosophical or technical. So much for the teaching and residential aspect of the University, there remains the question of religious instruction. You know the history of religious instruction in India, the fixed and unalterable neutrality of the British Government, and how in every province at the present time earnest men are seeking to find some means of infusing religious and moral ideas into the swiftly onrushing intellectualism of the day. It is a matter which we must leave to the Hindu community to work out on the lines which best commend themselves to it. The Theological faculty must be purely a Hindu faculty. On behalf of the Government of India I can only assure the Committee that they have our fullest sympathy in this new, and I believe, important venture.

I turn now to the measure itself. This consists of the Bill and original statutes. Regulations are in course of preparation. It was only by a *tour de force* on the part of Mr. Sharp, Dr. Sunderlal and Mr. Muddiman that the Bill and statutes have been prepared in time. In the first place, as regards the form of the Bill, I must explain that its apparent brevity is due partly to accepted practice conducive to the maximum of elasticity whereby only essentials are included in the legislative measure, partly to the desirability of relegating much to statute and regulation. Schedule 2 is very full and can be still further extended by the addition hereafter of such statutes as are not required for permitting the University to get immediately to work, and regulations have still to be framed.

I will now try to give you a brief account of the organisation of the new University. You will see that it is a somewhat complicated organisation, and it has been necessary to define and adjust the functions with some care. The University is an All-India University. It is incorporated for the teaching of all knowledge, but will commence with five faculties: arts, science, law, Oriental studies and theology. I know that many of the promoters desire to add the faculty of technology. This desire has my full sympathy, and I trust that adequate funds will soon be forthcoming. The University will be open to



HON. PUNDIT MADAN MOHAN MALAVYA.



H. H. SIR HARCOURT BUTLER.



H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF DHURBUNGA.



THE LATE GANGA PRASAD VARMA.



SIR GOORODAS BANERJEE.



H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BENARES.



H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF BIKANIR,



DR. RASH BIHARI GHOSE.



MRS. ANNIE BESANT.

students from all parts of India on conditions which I shall specify hereafter. The Governor-General is the Lord Rector of the University and the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh is Visitor of the University. Among those whom the University will delight to honour are Patrons, Vice-Patrons and Rectors. The governing body is a numerous and very representative Court with an executive body in the Council of not more than 30 members, of whom 5 will be members of the Senate. The Academic body is the Senate, consisting of not less than 40 members with an executive body in the Syndicate. The Senate will have entire charge of the organisation of instruction in the University and constituent colleges, curriculum and examination and discipline of students and conferment of ordinary and honorary degrees. Except in matters reserved to it, the Senate is under the control of the Court working through the Council. The Senate will be constituted as follows:—

1. Ex-officio:—(a) Chancellor, Pro-Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and the Pro-Vice-Chancellor for the time being. (b) University Professors. (c) Principals or heads of constituent colleges of the University.

2. Elected:—(a) 5 members to be elected by the Courts. (b) 5 members to be elected by registered graduates of the University from such date as the Court may fix. (c) 5 representatives of Hindu religion and Sanskrit learning to be elected by the Senate. (d) Should the Vice-Chancellor declare that there is a deficiency in the number of members required in any faculty or faculties, then 5 or less persons be elected by the Senate eminent in the subject or subjects of that faculty or those faculties.

3. Nominated:—5 members will be nominated by the Visitor.

The Syndicate will consist of the Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor and 15 members, of whom no less than 10 shall be University Principals or Professors of constituent colleges. The object aimed at is to secure that purely academic matters should be decided by a body mainly expert. While the government and supervision of the University rests with the Court and the Council it is necessary to represent the Senate on the latter in order that the academic view may always be before it. The Court will elect its own Chancellor and Pro-Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and Pro-Vice-Chancellor. In the first instance these officers will be scheduled. The Vice-Chancellor will be ex-officio Chairman of the Council, Senate

and Syndicate. He will be the chief executive officer of the University. The University will, through the Council and Board of Appointments, appoint its own professors and staff and have entire control over them. Stability is given to the constitution by requiring the sanction of external authority to changes in the statutes and regulations.

This is the outline of the constitution of the University. Government binds itself to accept the degrees, etc., of this University as equivalent to the degrees, etc., of the existing Universities. This in itself is no mean concession. My Lord, I have seen this constitution described as illiberal, and I have rubbed my eyes in amazement. It is far more liberal than the constitution of the existing Universities. No Government can allow Universities to grow up without control. In most European countries Universities, or at least the majority of them, are entirely State Universities. In the course of these discussions two policies emerged, one was a policy of trust, the other a policy of distrust, Government might well have said to Society:—"You are starting a new kind of University without any experience of it in India. We must guide you from within at any rate until you prove your worth and the value of your degrees." That would not have been an unreasonable attitude. But we preferred to trust society, to leave them large autonomy and to reserve to Government only necessary powers of intervention if things go wrong. I hope that things will not go wrong; but you will not misunderstand me when I say that the taking of these powers is a necessary precaution. You will also realise that, to some extent, this is a leap in the dark, and that the machinery which is being provided is very complicated and might, in conceivable circumstances, produce friction. I hope that intervention will not be required. We desire, and Sir James Meston desires, that you should manage your own affairs. We are anxious to maintain the dignity and independence of the University, but we must, in the public interest, in the interests of the rising generation, in your own interests, have power to interfere should things go wrong. We could not contemplate the existence of the University or recognise its degrees in any other terms, but, with this one reservation, we wish to see you realise your own way of life, your own way of corporate life. I ask the Hon. Members to compare the constitution of this University with that of the oldest University in India. And yet who will deny that the University of Calcutta has had in practice a

measure of independence that is not accorded to Universities in most countries? In Calcutta 80 of 100 ordinary members of the Senate are nominated by the Chancellor, who is ex-officio the Governor-General, while the election of the remaining 20 is subject to the approval of the Chancellor. In the case of this University only 5 out of the minimum of 50 are nominated by the Visitor, who is ex-officio the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, and this provision was suggested by yourselves in order to secure expert official help and co-operation. In Calcutta the appointment of Professors requires the sanction of the Government of India. In this University no such sanction is required. There will be in this University, under normal conditions, no interference whatever from outside with the University staff. In Calcutta the Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the Governor-General in Council. In this University the Court elects the Vice-Chancellor subject only to the approval of the Visitor. The Court has power to elect its own Chancellor and Pro-Chancellor. In Court and Council the Government has no voice or representation whatever. Ordinary powers of intervention are vested in the Visitor. The Visitor will be close at hand when you will need his help at every turn in the acquisition of land and in many other ways. And you will not appeal to Sir James Meston in vain. Extraordinary powers are vested in the Governor-General in Council. You need not be alarmed lest they be exercised unduly. The tendency will be the other way. It will not be in human nature that the Visitor should seek lightly the intervention of the Governor-General in Council. I have not noticed such tendency in Local Government. In the Government of India the tendency is all the other way to avoid interference in details of administration. The terms are necessarily general, but it is made quite clear that they are extraordinary and emergent powers, and considering how much this movement already owes to the Government of India, I confidently ask you to believe in our *bona fides*. We have trusted the promoters so much that I think we ourselves may claim some trust at your hands.

So much for the constitution of the University. There remains the question of admission to the University, and this raises the whole question of recognition of schools and matriculation. This will be dealt with in regulations, but I will tell you exactly what is our policy in the matter and what principles underlie it. Some of the promot-

ers, I understand, desire to keep the recognition of schools in the hands of the University and to conduct their own matriculation examination. This wish is opposed to all the best modern view on the subject. This view, strongly emphasised by the Commission on University Education in London, is this, that it is the central educational authority which is concerned to see that its grants are effectively used, and that it is that authority also which must provide for the co-ordination of secondary schools and Universities and must give the necessary assurance to the latter that pupils seeking admission to their degree courses have reached the required standard of education. The Committee, I may mention, accept the recognition of schools by Local Government and Durbars.

As regards Matriculation, I must remind the Council that this is not a federal territorial University but a teaching and residential University. In the case of the Dacca University the Committee decided that it could not conduct its own matriculation examination. It was recognised that most of the high school students would be reading for admission to the colleges of the Calcutta University, and that therefore the requirements of that University must regulate the course of studies in those schools. In the case of the Benares Hindu University, pupils of high schools will similarly be reading for admission to the existing Universities, and a new University could not with advantage set up a different standard or prescribe a new course. Again, it was recognised that a separate entrance examination for Dacca held at the headquarters of Dacca would be cumbrous and difficult to carry out and would be likely to cause confusion. These reasons are applicable, with even greater force, to the Benares Hindu University. Probably before many years have passed the external Matriculation examination octopus, which digs its tentacles into all limbs and parts of our secondary English schools, will be replaced by some system of school leaving certificate. The most weighty authorities of modern times, the Consultative Committee on Examinations in Secondary Schools and Lord Haldane's Commission on University Education in London alike contemplate the abolition of purely external matriculation. Meanwhile the position will be this: The Benares Hindu University will accept for admission to its courses all candidates from schools at present recognised by the University or by the Local Government or by the Durbar, who have passed the

Matriculation examination of that University or obtained the recognised school leaving certificate. The Benares Hindu University will also be able to impose any additional test on such candidates that it may think desirable. The Benares Hindu University will hold its own Matriculation examination at Benares for all candidates for the faculties of Oriental Studies and Theology and for private candidates (on the usual conditions) in other faculties.

Finally, in order to meet the strong desire of some of the promoters, that certain schools should prepare exclusively for the Benares Hindu University, it has been decided to allow such course, provided that such schools are recognised by the Local Government of the province or by arrangements, which will have to be decided hereafter by the Durbar of the State in which they are situated, and provided also that such schools are not allowed to send up candidates for Matriculation to any other University. Only in this way can complication of school curricula and confusion in the examination system be prevented. The Secretary of State allows the large concession, involving some breach of principle, in deference to the sentiment of the promoters. It will come under reconsideration if at any time the school leaving certificate generally ousts the Matriculation examination of our Universities.

I have now dealt fully and frankly with two main points on which there have been differences of opinion. There remains yet one other point on which there has been misunderstanding that is easily removable. It is said that this University has ceased to be an All-India University. This is not the case. It is open for students from every province and Native State of India. Schools preparing for admission to it may be situated in any province or Native State in India. Its governing body is recruited from the length and breadth of India. It will send forth its alumni to every quarter of India. It will number among its patrons Governors and heads of provinces, Ruling Chiefs and other eminent benefactors in all parts of India. I am informed that the following large subscriptions have already been paid :—Maharaja of Nashipur 1½ lakhs, Maharaja Holkar 5 lakhs, Maharaja of Jodhpur 2 lakhs with a grant in perpetuity of Rs. 2,000 a month, Maharaja of Bikanir 1 lakh with grant in perpetuity of Rs. 1,000 a month, Maharaja of Kashmir a grant in perpetuity of Rs. 1,000 a month, Maharaja of Kotah 1 lakh, Maharaja Bahadur of Darbhanga 3 out of 5 lakhs, Dr. Rash Behari Ghose 1 lakh, Dr. Sun-

derlal 1 lakh, Maharaja of Cossimbazar 1 lakh, Babu Brojendra Kishore Roy Chowdhuri of Gouripur 1 lakh, and Babu Motichand 1 lakh. The Maharaja Scindia of Gwalior has promised Rs. 5 lakhs, and others have promised liberal donations, of which in many cases part payments have been made. If there ever was an All-India University it is this.

I think that on review of all the facts Hon. Members will agree that the Government has dealt in a large and liberal spirit with the movement. The conduct of negotiations has not been easy. It has been complicated by the fact that the movement was started on lines of its own without reference to Government and without knowledge of conditions which Government considered essential to its success. It was further complicated by criticisms from opposing points of view. If to some it has seemed that Government was granting too little, to others it has seemed that the Government was granting too much. I do not conceal from Hon. Members that in some quarters it has been considered that Government was taking grave risks, risks graver than any Government ought to face. I can understand this view, but I do not myself share it. We know that we are taking a certain amount of risk. We know that there is the danger lest this University, or similar Universities elsewhere, develop undesirable tendencies or lower the standard of education. We deliberately face that risk, believing in the loyalty and good sense of India and the growing desire to co-operate with the Government on the part of the Hindu and other communities in India. For my part, I am hopeful of success. I earnestly trust that the introduction of this Bill and the removal of misunderstanding will lead to further enthusiasm and provision of funds sufficient to build and equip the University on a worthy scale worthy of the great Hindu community. I confess that the other day when I was standing opposite to Mr. Rayaningar on the site where your University buildings will, I hope, soon be rising in stately array, and looked down the river Ganges to the Ghats at Kachi which swept before me in the distance, I felt that if I was a Hindu I should be proud indeed of the achievement of my people, and at the same time I felt some little pride myself that I was a member of a Government which had joined in one more large endeavour to combine the ancient and honoured culture of India with the culture of the modern Western world.

INDIANS OUTSIDE INDIA

INDIANS IN THE CROWN COLONIES.

The *Leader* of Allahabad makes the following remarks concerning indentured Indians in the Crown Colonies:—"The main evils of the system, though they may be minimised, cannot be eradicated so long as the system of securing labour by means of indentures is continued. Abuses by recruiting agents in India will continue, and a number of ignorant victims are sure to be inveigled. It is doubtful how far the officers of the Emigration Department in each colony will use the authority, with which they may be vested, to prevent the 'intemperate use of the disciplinary provisions of the ordinance,' in the interests of the labourer. Why should not inducements for free emigration be held out? We are sure that when a large number of persons are available to indenture themselves for service, a still larger number will be available if facilities are offered for emigration without indenture. The employers in the colonies will then have a larger field to select their labour from, and if a labourer does not do his work properly he can be turned away, instead of being coerced into work, simply because the employer has got, under the indenture system, a property in the human material, which he can use as his own cattle or as his beast of burden. The demoralising effects of the system cannot be done away with in spite of any number of palliative remedies, and it is both in the interests of the employer and the employee that it should be done away with."

GERMAN EAST AFRICA FOR INDIANS.

John Bull puts forward the suggestion, not for the first time, that it would be a "gracious act" to reserve or throw open German East Africa to Indian emigrants when the great settlement takes place at the close of the war: "That an outlet is required for the surplus Hindu population cannot be denied, and in view of the loyal fashion in which our Indian fellow-subjects have rallied to the flag, our appreciation could not be better expressed than by providing scope in a land climatically suitable, fertile, and sparsely inhabited, for the industry and enterprise of thousands of Hindus who are at present chafed by the limitations in which they are forced to live. Germany must be shorn of her colonial possessions for all time, and no better start could be made towards that purpose than by reserving German East Africa for the Indians."

INDIAN ASSOCIATION, DUBLIN.

Mr. V. V. Gui, Secretary of the Indian Association, Dublin, writes to the Indian Press:

"An Indian Association was formed on the 26th November 1914, and since then it has been doing good work.

"Some of the objects of the Association are (a) to promote the social welfare of the Indians in general; (b) to strengthen and maintain a spirit of unity, brotherhood and fellow-feeling amongst the Indians in all parts of the world especially in Ireland; (c) to encourage foreign travel amongst the Indians in India; (d) celebrating Indian festivals, holding social gatherings and arranging lectures and dinners; (e) supplying of information regarding the honourable society of the King's Inns and also as regards the various faculties of arts, law, medicine and engineering, etc., of the National University of Ireland and Trinity College in particular and of other institutions in the United Kingdom in general with the help of competent Indians engaged in those various faculties.

"The public and as well as our fellow-students in India who wish to avail themselves of the opportunities given by their fellow brethren in Dublin may apply whenever they wish for any sort of information regarding the said Universities and cost of living, etc., to the Secretary, Indian Association, Dublin, C/o King's Inns."

INDIANS IN BRITISH GUIANA.

During the past fortnight or so, writes *The Argosy of Demerara*, upwards of six hundred free and indentured immigrants (from East India) of Cane Grove and Virginia villages approached Corporal Campbell, in charge of the Cane Grove Police Station, with a view to having their names enrolled for service in the war.

Some of them went so far in their loyalty as to bring their bank-books and other securities to the Corporal, with the request that they be sent to His Excellency the Governor to be safely kept during their absence, and in case of their death to be handed over to the Government of the Colony.

While their countrymen in France and Belgium are rendering such gallant service to the Empire, it is gratifying to see in the same journal such sincere and simple loyalty existing among the East Indian people of the Colony. Although the possibility of their services being required is very remote, they may rest assured that their expression of loyalty is fully appreciated.

FEUDATORY INDIA

H. E. THE VICEROY AT GWALIOR.

At the recent State Banquet given in honour of H. E. the Viceroy on March 30, His Highness the Maharaja made a brief but pointed speech in which he traced the progress of the State during his Highness's regime. In acknowledging the toast H. E. Lord Hardinge made the following observations on the progress of the State especially in matters educational.

Since Your Highness received your powers some 21 years ago the history of Gwalior has been one of continuous progress. Every department of the State has received the impress of Your Highness' vigorous personality and the brief tale which you have told us of the measures of the administration gives but a shadow picture of the unceasing and devoted labours which you have expended upon the development of the Gwalior State and the well-being of your people. I am glad to note the progress which has been made in the spread of education in all its branches and wise and well considered lines and what Your Highness has said as to need for close inspection and fatherly treatment of the students both in and out of the school commands my complete and whole-hearted concurrence. Nowhere more than in India had the maxim that "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing" been more strikingly exemplified and it is upon the degree to which education both of the mind and character can be made more real and thorough that the future of this great Empire in no small measure depends. In British India we had done something towards this end and I rejoice that Your Highness' endeavours are directed towards the same goal. The interest which the Chiefs of Central India and Your Highness in particular have taken in the Daly College at Indore and the munificent support that you have given to that institution show that you realise too that it is not only the common people but also the rulers and the estate holders who require to have their faculties developed and their character strengthened and purified by an enlightened and liberal system of training, and I wish you all success in your efforts to raise the standard both in Chief's Colleges and in the schools.

Touching the magnificent response of Gwalior and the other Indian States at this time of peril the Viceroy said feelingly :—"This spontaneous outburst of loyal devotion, though it was not unexpected by those who knew the feelings and traditions of the States, came as a revelation to the outside world who have at last learned to appreciate what India and its Princes and Peoples mean to the British Empire. Foremost among the Princes who have combined to produce the revelation stands the Maharaja Scindia whose guests we are to-night."

SOAP-MAKING IN MYSORE.

Mysore contemplates adding to its industries by investigating the possibilities of soap manufacture. Mr. J. Chakravarti, F.C.S., has been selected by the Government to conduct these investigations. He was formerly a director of the Oriental Soap Factory of Calcutta, and is considered to be an expert.

Hopes were once entertained, says a contemporary, that the Institute of Science at Bangalore would have substantially assisted in the research work connected with this industry in a State reputed to be very favoured by Nature in having a plentiful supply of raw materials. Some three or four years ago we visited the Institute and were shown some miserable samples of soap, which had presumably been the result of much "scientific" thought, but incidentally, much ridiculed by the unscientific of Bangalore. We trust the labours of Mr. Chakravarti will not share a like fate, and we shall await developments with no little interest.

The attempts in the past to manufacture soap in the Mysore State have not been altogether satisfactory or profitable. We trust however, concludes the same journal, that as a result of the enquiries of Mr. Chakravarti both these elements will be realised.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA SCINDIA'S LETTER.

In a letter from H. H. the Maharajah Scindia of Gwalior, His Highness contradicts the rumours rife in parts of the Punjab as regards the arrangements for the feeding and clothing of Indian troops at the front. His Highness assures the public that the Military authorities have done everything in their power for the comfort of Indian Troops, and that the arrangements for those troops were inspected by His Majesty the King Emperor, who made personal enquiry and was satisfied that they were all well looked after. From his conversation with the Indian troops returning from the front, His Highness is satisfied that on the field of battle European and Indian troops are on a footing of perfect equality. Of course, they had to live in trenches, but invalided soldiers had nothing to complain of as regards the supply of food and other necessaries, even on occasions when they had to live in the trenches for a whole fortnight at a stretch.

A PARSI IN H. H. NIZAM'S SERVICE.

Nawab Faridoon Jung Bahadur, C.S.I., C.I.E., was recently the recipient of a congratulatory address from the Parsi community on his elevation to the high office of Sadarul Maham, Political Department. The address referred to the pride the Parsi community felt on the high recognition by H. H. the Nizam of one of their number. Faridoon is the oldest servant of the State, having put in 45 years' strenuous work. The Nawab, in accepting the address from the hands of the high priest said he received it with all the more joy because it gave the Parsi community an opportunity of publicly expressing their sense of gratitude to H. H. the Nizam, who so closely followed the traditions of his House, keeping it free from religious and racial prejudices. The Parsi community had always been most generously treated.

H. H. THE MAHARAJA OF PANNA.

The Government of India having arranged that H. H. the Mahendra Maharaja of Panna should be invested with ruling powers on the 4th February, the ceremony was appropriately performed by the Hon. Mr. O. V. Bosanquet, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., Agent to the Governor-General at the capital of the Maharaja. In the course of his address to the Durbar on the occasion the Hon. Mr. Bosanquet said :—

It is my pleasing duty to announce in this Durbar that the Government of India have been pleased to invest you, on attaining the age of 21, with full ruling powers within your state subject only to the condition that your Highness will, until further notice, consult the Political Agent and follow his advice in all matters of importance.

It is now 12 years since your Highness was installed on the *gaddi* and during that time, while the old customs of the State have been carefully preserved, many improvements have been effected in the administration by the Dewan and his colleagues of the Council of Regency, acting under the supervision and control of the Political

After dilating awhile in the progress of the State during the Maharaja's minority and alluding to the excellent education His Highness was privileged to receive, the Hon. Mr. Bosanquet concluded with the words :—

I cannot do better than quote your Highness, the advice which a distinguished predecessor of mine offered to a young Chief of his investiture: 'Speaking with a full sense of responsibility,' he said, 'I can say with confidence that most of the dangers and difficulties that beset the path of a ruler and specially of a young ruler, arise from the intrigue and machinations of self-seeking persons who endeavour to establish a secret sinister

influence with him. The surest safeguard against this evil is for a Chief to choose his responsible advisers with discretion, to exact from them loyal service, to give them in return his confidence and support, to consult the political officers who represent the Government of India, freely and frankly when in doubt or difficulty, and thus to establish a clear and healthy atmosphere in the administration of the state.

After the investiture His Highness spoke a few words, acknowledging his debts to those who have trained him in his career and closed with the following words. He said :—

Very much has been done for me and my State in the past. For this I am sincerely grateful and it remains only for me to assure you that in the future I shall try my utmost to fulfil the hopes you kindly entertain on my behalf, by identifying myself with the interests and further progress of my people on the same lines that have given such happy results, and so to earn their affection and the confidence of Government. In my efforts to this end I shall carefully observe the condition on which I am now invested with powers and even apart from that condition I shall always value and take to heart the advice given me by yourself and the Political Agent in Bundelkhand.

To commemorate this happy occasion it is my intention to release or reduce the sentences of six prisoners now in the state jail: to remit arrears of land revenue, taccavi and famine suspensions to the amount of rupees one lakh: and to grant to all the officials in the State, except those who are debarred from it by the rules of Government, a bonus proportioned to their individual salaries amounting in all to Rs. 15,105.

A salute of 11 guns was then fired and the ceremony was brought to a close with numerous presents to the great gathering.

BARODA HEALTH EXHIBITION.

His Highness the Maharaja of Baroda performed recently the prize-giving ceremony to the successful competitors in the Health Exhibition in the presence of a large and representative gathering of ladies and gentlemen including the Resident, the Dewan and other high officials. Mr. M. N. Mehta, President of the Managing Committee, read the Report and said that the Exhibition was visited by nearly 40,000 people, including a large number of ladies. After the prize distribution the Maharaja in his speech praised the organisers for the excellent work achieved by the Exhibition. "If people followed the ordinary rules of hygiene," His Highness said, "the doctors would find time hanging on their hands." He also referred to the importance of the subject of domestic economy and said: "If the merit of domestic economy was worked properly, the Society was bound to improve and my Police Commissioner and his men will have very little work to do."

INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL SECTION.

JAPANESE COMMERCE.

In the current number of the *Journal of the Indo-Japanese Association* Mr. Hogakushi compares the commercial position of India and China and attempts to predict the ultimate effects of the present European War upon Japan-China and Japan-India commerce. He says that China is far more resourceful than India, and that with all their superior personal traits and natural resources the Chinese fall behind the Indian people in regard to their foreign trade. As a race the Chinese lack the power of business organisation; and though as individual business-men they understand that honesty is the best policy, in large corporations and business firms they frequently resort to dishonesty and are incapable of giving them vigorous and perfect growth. China has of recent years never been remarkable for order and peace, and the frequent revolutionary outbreaks retard the free flow of foreign capital. A third cause of China's drawback is her monetary system, and her standard money, the tael, suffers constant fluctuation.

The commerce of Japan with China amounts to 160 million taels annually and is comparatively larger than that of other countries with her. So far as it concerns China, it is a question of the future, however near that future may be; but with regard to India, Japan stands under an unfavourable balance of trade of nearly 130 million yen and the loss due to the one-sided transportation and one-sided exchange is considerable. As the demand of Europe for raw materials is gradually falling off, the purchasing power of India and China may lessen to some extent; but the Indians cannot get along without an article like cotton stuff, and it will be most opportune for Japan to export cotton to India at the present juncture. Japan annually buys raw cotton from India to the extent of 120 million yen and if only the Japanese manufacturers should study the tastes of the Indians, there is no reason why Indian consumption of Japanese cotton goods should not reach the same limit. Thus, apart from political alliance and racial and moral causes, Japan and India may be brought together in closer fellowship of bond and sympathy and an indissoluble link as it were may be forged between them by commerce.

HIMALAYAN RAILWAY.

The Kissengunge-Matigora section of the Darjeeling-Himalayan Railway was linked up on February 23rd. The line, which is 63 miles in length, is on a narrow gauge. It runs from Siliguri via Nuzalbaree, thence along the boundary of Nepal. The tract of the country it opens up is a rich one. A stretch of twenty-two miles to Islampore, previously opened for traffic, is already showing good results; and now that the whole line has been linked up, says *Indian Industries and Power*, a material increase in the consignments of jute for Calcutta via Siliguri may be expected. The rolling stock includes bogie cars, and a special type of the engine built by the Atlas Company of Glasgow is capable of drawing eight hundred tons. The train has been successfully tested during the past few days.

The completion of the Tista Valley line, which also connects with Siliguri, has been delayed owing to the difficulty caused by the war in getting out the bridging material from home, but this work also is well in hand and is one of which the Darjeeling-Himalayan Railway Company may well be proud. For sixteen and a half miles from Balighora to Tista bridge the line worms its way along the hillside, necessitating heavy blasting operations. It will directly tap the produce of Sikkim and indirectly that of Tibet, and is likely to develop considerable traffic. Some two lakhs of maunds per annum are already passing through in spite of scarcity and cost of the primitive means of transport which this railway, when completed, will replace.

THE ENGINEERING CONGRESS.

The first meeting of the Engineering Congress was held in Bombay when papers were read and discussed on town planning, road maintenance, the Hubli filter installation and river training works. The Congress is to be an annual function and will be held next year in Bombay, and in subsequent years in Bombay, Poona or Karachi. Gazetted officers with engineering, architectural or allied professional qualifications who are in the employ of the Government, Port Trust, Improvement Trust, Railway Company, Municipality or similarly recognised public body are eligible for membership.

HON. MR. CARDEW ON CO-OPERATION.

In the course of an excellent address at the Mangalore Co-operative Conference the Hon. Mr. A. G. Cardew thus spoke about the real object of the Co-operative Movement:—

“What we look for from the co-operative movement is something quite different from the mere increase of loanable capital, or even the reduction in the rate of interest. Important as is the provision of additional capital for the development of the country, it is far more important to develop what may be termed the moral capital of the people. The co-operative movement, although it is necessarily concerned mainly with material objects, depends for its success on moral qualities and is valuable because of the influence which it ought to bring to bear on the development of those qualities in the people. For it is on the possessions of the requisite moral qualities that the ultimate success of the movement will depend, and nothing will enable the co-operative movement to succeed unless the people themselves possess and are able to develop the qualities demanded of it. If I were called upon to define what these qualities are, I should say that they principally consist in courage, independence and self-control. Courage is necessary because it is essential that every co-operator should be ready to speak his mind and to bear a part without fear or favour in the conduct of the affairs of his society. Independence is requisite because it is essential that no one man should be allowed to secure more than his fair share of the funds available from the common stock. And of course some measure of self-control is essential if we are to guard against undue attempts to secure undue personal advantage. The success of a society would thus be proportionate to the self-denial and resolution which those who work it can bring to bear, and the ultimate success of the movement must depend upon the moral resources and moral fibre of the community in which it operates. The motto with which the Secretary terminated his address: ‘All for each and each for all,’ may sound at first a trifle high flown and sanctimonious, for in practical business matters we hardly expect to find all working for the benefit of others or that one should be ready to devote himself to the advantage of all. But in order that co-operation may really be successful, it is essential that each worker should keep before himself the common interest and should never allow his own personal advantage to be the sole guide of his actions.”

TOWN-PLANNING IN BOMBAY.

Professor Geddes' Town Planning Exhibition was opened on the 16th March in Bombay in the presence of a large gathering by H. E. the Governor. Lord Willingdon said that the Exhibition had arrived in Bombay at a very suitable time, for the Presidency was keenly alive to the necessity of town-planning, and when the question of relieving congestion and the development of suburban areas came up, they wanted to go forward in the right way with regard to town-planning in future. Mistakes could not be avoided and had been made in Bombay and other cities in the past, but they wanted to make no more mistakes in future. To-day it was the duty of every one to see that people of all classes and creeds had an opportunity of living in comfortable houses and surroundings, and it was the duty of the Government to achieve that purpose by administration and legislation.

SIR H. BURT.

Sir Henry Burt, President of the Railway Board, has accepted the appointment of the Director of Railways at the India Office in place of Sir T. R. Wynne, the latter succeeding Mr. Robert Miller as Managing Director of the Bengal Nagpur Railway. Mr. Miller becomes the Chairman of the Board of the Directors of the new Railway in the room of the late Sir Samuel Hoare. Sir Henry has had a brilliant career in this country and also distinguished himself as a Member of the Punjab Legislative Council as well as the Imperial Legislative Council. His retirement from the Government of India is a distinct loss to the country he has given the best years of his life.

THE SHAN HILLS RAILWAY.

The opening of the Shan Hills Railway marks an important stage in the development of railway traffic in Burma. On the night of 1st February the first passenger train steamed into Kalaw. Goods train have, however, been running during the past month, but the arrival of this train dates the opening of the new Shan Hills Railway for passengers. At Thaze Junction the real climb begins and the gradient is very steep, in some cases as much as one in twenty-five. There are, says *Indian Industries and Power*, four reverses and as the train zizzags upwards some wonderful views are unfolded. The railway, which is a tribute to the ingenuity and skill of the constructional engineers, is already reported to have entirely captured the carrying trade of the district.

THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY.

The extraordinary development of the automobile industry in the United States, says an esteemed contemporary, is reflected in the rapid growth of the exports, which amounted to nearly 28 million dollars in the fiscal year 1914, exclusive of parts and accessories. While this sum is not very impressive as compared with the value of the automobiles produced in the United States during the past year, it is nearly forty-five times as large as the value of the automobiles imported into the country in the same year, and thirteen times as large as the exports of automobiles a decade ago.

The success of the automobile industry of the United States, particularly as regards low and medium-priced cars, is generally attributed to the methods of standardization, which make possible the extensive use of machinery, but which also require production on a large scale. Under such conditions, an outlet to foreign markets becomes a necessary adjunct to economical production for the domestic demand, and the manufacturers have therefore manifested a keen interest in the conditions affecting the marketing of their products in foreign countries.

AN INDIA TRADE COMMISSIONER.

A Government of India Press *communiqué* announces that Mr. M. M. S. Gubbay, I.C.S., Collector of Customs, Bombay (on leave), has, as an experimental measure, been attached for a few months on special duty as India Trade Commissioner to the Board of Trade, City Office, 30, Cheapside, London. In this capacity, he will assist in finding outlets in the United Kingdom for Indian exports of raw and manufactured articles, which in normal years go to Germany and Austria-Hungary or to other parts of the Continent, and which have lost their markets owing to the war. All letters asking for Mr. Gubbay's assistance in this connection should be addressed through the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, as in some cases this officer may be able to dispose of questions from information already available in his office.

AN INDIAN RESTAURANT IN LONDON.

A native of Delhi keeps a small restaurant on the first floor of a shop opposite Central London Tube terminus at Shepherd's Bush Green, and, given a short notice, any Indian curry, pillau, kickari and julabis can be had and enjoyed.

INDIAN INDUSTRIES.

What unfair and unjust methods were employed by England to destroy the flourishing industries of India, says the *Amrita Bazaar Patrika*, has thus been described by the historian, H. H. Wilson. "The British manufacturer," says he, "employed the arm of political injustice to keep down and ultimately strangle a competitor with whom he could not have contended on equal terms." It was by destroying the means of livelihood of millions of Indian artisans, who, along with themselves, fed and clothed millions of their countrymen, that British manufacturers grew and prospered. It is a most inglorious episode in the history of British rule in India. Even in later years the same selfish policy was pursued to check the growth of the industrial development of India. The invention of the power-loom in Europe necessarily helped the further decay of Indian industries. But when some enterprising Indian merchants started some cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency, everything possible was done by the British merchants to nip the enterprise in the bud. First of all heavy duties were imposed upon machineries imported to India from England. Then an excise duty was imposed on the production of cotton fabrics in India, which still continues, disabling the Indian manufacturer from competing with the manufacturer of England, Japan and China. And while this excise duty was intended to stifle the new steam mills of India, the import duties were remitted so that Manchester merchants might sell its goods so cheaply as to make it impossible for the weavers of India to compete with the products of their handlooms.

BRIDGING THE JUMNA.

The old single line railway bridge over the Jumna river in the vicinity of Saharanpur is to be converted into a road bridge. This with the improvement of the road leading up to it from Saharanpur is estimated to cost close on three lakhs of rupees. The cost will be shared by the Punjab and United Provinces Governments, the former Government paying a somewhat larger share. The Government of the Punjab will also meet the cost of an approach road to the bridge from Abdullapur on the right bank of the Jumna. The cost of this approach road is estimated at about a lakh of rupees.

THE BOMBAY FACTORY REPORT.

The administration of the Factory Department during the year under review was marked by no event of special importance. The total number of factories regulated by the Act during the year under report was 743, being 56 in excess of the number for the year immediately preceding. This increase in the number of factories is, no doubt, partly responsible for the increase of over 6,000 in the number of operatives employed during the year :

Year.	Operatives.
1913	265,975
1912	259,845

6,130

THE WORLD'S SHIPPING

It is estimated that 14 per cent, of the world's shipping, says the *Bombay Chronicle*, was German and Austrian and this is out of action. The British Government has taken up one-fifth of the British tonnage and this is 10 per cent. of the world's tonnage. So about 24 per cent. of the tonnage of the world is removed from trade. On the other hand trade has materially decreased and 75 per cent. of the world's shipping ought to carry it. The owners of vessels say risks, insurance and port delays have increased. There is no doubt about risks but insurance is very small at least war insurance, but the congestion of ports is a serious loss. Here the working classes come in and ask why the shipowners should get large profit and the workers not get higher wages. One sees the matter is seething in the ammunition and equipment trades and the only solution seems an appeal to the fable, (about the belly and the members) of Menenius Agrippa which is, we see, being resorted to plus a medal for the workers. However the time is not the right one for haggling about wages which ought to be conceded considering that one Mr. Montagu Meyer, who has the buying of timber for the nation, has made £37,000 in four months. As to this there is a great outcry. He is said to have been in business four years and the British timber trade is in a wild state of

A NEW TYPE-WRITER.

At the Panama-Pacific Exposition a typewriter of gigantic proportions is to be exhibited. "Lest their product be overlooked among the myriads of typewriters that are to be put on exhibition an enterprising Company has had a machine built 1,728 times larger than a standard typewriter." The *Scientific American* remarks that this gigantic machine is not merely a colossal image but a working model that actually writes. During the exposition it will type news bulletins on a sheet of paper nine feet wide, in letters three inches high and two inches apart. This monster machine will be operated by electrical connection with a type-writer of standard dimensions. For instance, on depressing a key of the standard machine the corresponding key of the large machine will respond. A lever is used for the return of the carriage and for line spacing or rotating the cylinder. This novel machine weighs fourteen tons, while an ordinary machine weighs only thirty pounds. It is twenty-one feet wide, in action, by fifteen feet high and requires for its operation a room measuring 25 x 30 x 25 feet. The platen nine feet six inches long by twenty-one inches in diameter, weighs 1,200 pounds. The carriage weighs 3,500 pounds. Each type bar is fifty-two inches long and weighs as much as a "standard" typewriter. This mammoth typewriter has been under construction for about two years, and it cost one hundred thousand dollars.

COST OF AIRSHIPS.

Airships cost from £50,000 to £100,000 to manufacture. A two-seater aeroplane can be made for £1,000, and as its upkeep is relatively so small—hangers, gas, crew, etc., are not required—is far speedier, and can be used in all weathers, experts are beginning to realise that fifty aeroplanes are far better than the cheapest airship. The maximum speed of the latest Zeppelin is twenty-one miles an hour; an ordinary aeroplane can fly five times as fast. The advantages of airships over aeroplanes are, says the *Wealth of India*, that their speed can be varied, they can hover over a particular point and therefore be able to throw bombs more accurately, and they can carry more explosive material. Their disadvantages are numerous.

AGRICULTURAL SECTION.

AN AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT.

An interesting agricultural experiment with imported steam ploughing plant has been successfully carried out in Dharwar district, Gujarat, where the land experimented on was unfit for cultivation owing to the abundance of deep-seated weeds and grasses. In spite of many preliminary difficulties most satisfactory results have been achieved. 770 acres of waste land were ploughed to a depth of 16 to 18 inches realizing a net profit of Rs. 607 on seasons working after providing for interest, depreciation and repairs to plant. Encouraged by the success of the experiment enterprising cultivators of the neighbouring district of Kaira have imported a steam ploughing tackle from England at a cost of Rs. 52,000 which will be employed in breaking up 43,000 acres of hard waste land in order to make it fit for cotton cultivation.

WESTERN INDIA CROP REPORTS.

In the Bombay Presidency, Sind and the Native States, the best reports of groundnut show that the total area under this crop is 242,500 acres, or 44 per cent. below last year. The total area of the sesamum crop is 1,052,200 acres, or about 12 per cent. over last year; linseed and rape seed is 83,000 and 313,800, or 15.3 below and 155.6 per cent. over last year, respectively. Regarding wheat, the preliminary memorandum shows the total area sown as 2,042,800 acres, or 177 per cent. over last year. Sowing still continues in places, and the condition of the crop in the area reported on by the Bombay Department of Agriculture is considered to be fairly good.

VALUE OF HEN MANURE.

In dealing with such a large number of hens manure forms a most valuable by-product. It is estimated that 100 large fowls will produce 4 tons of moist manure in the year, worth for many purposes 30s. per ton. Assuming that the value of the manure from each pullet is worth 1s., the return under this head alone works out at £14-14s. On an ordinary farm this might very reasonably be put against the green food, roots, milk and litter used, and still leave a surplus in favour of the poultry.

A SYSTEM OF MANURE GATHERING.

Mr. H. C. Sampson writes to the journal of the *Madras Agricultural Students' Union* :—

"In the village of Eppothuvendran, a black soil dry village between Ettiyapuram and Tuticorin, I came across an excellent practice of making compost. There was a depression in the ground some distance from the village where silt from the adjoining land accumulates in the rainy season. This silt was at the time of my visit being removed. It was still quite wet. A layer about 9 inch thick was spread on the ground in a neat rectangular area. On this a layer of ordinary cattle manure about 4 inch thick was evenly spread. This was again covered with a layer of wet silt on which cattle manure was again spread. Alternate layers of silt and cattle manure were then built up. One compost stack, which was being built was about 5 feet high. I enquired the reason why this system was adopted in preference to the usual system of keeping the cattle manure in a pit and periodically covering it with silt and was given the very sound explanation that there was no silt available near the village and as the manure was mixed with silt in the proportions of about one to three, this saved considerably in carting, especially as the manure was to be used in lands distant from the village."

INDIAN CROPS.

The final forecasts of the Indian rice and cotton crops, and a final memorandum upon the Indian sugar-cane crop of the current season, have been compiled by the Director of Statistics to the Government of India. The total estimated yield of rice is 3 per cent. short of the revised figure of last year. Most of the deficiency is in Behar and Orissa, but the crop is also somewhat short in both Bengal and Burma. The total estimated yield of cotton is 3 per cent. more than the revised figure for last year; Bombay, the Central Provinces and Behar accounting for most of this increase. As regards sugar-cane, the output is estimated at 3 per cent. above the revised figure for last year and nearly 6 per cent. above the average of the preceding five years, this improvement being due to conditions generally having improved in the latter part of the season, the area sown having been no less than 9 per cent. short of that sown last year.

WELLS FOR IRRIGATION.

The last number of the *Asiatic Review* contains an important article on "Wells for Irrigation in India," by Mr. E. A. Malony, I.C.S. In the course of that paper Mr. Malony strongly urges that the Government of India should make a determined attack on the problem of the design of a really efficient percolation well. He says:—

"In the spring well tract work has now passed beyond the experimental stage, and all that need be said is that the agricultural departments have only to press on with the work in hand as energetically as possible. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said of the percolation well tracts, and so far the agricultural departments have been able to do very little to develop irrigation by encouraging the construction of more efficient wells, for the very good reason that much more experiment is necessary before a really satisfactory type of percolation well can be designed."

As this problem is one of enormous importance to agriculture in India he examines the difficulties of the problem at some length and concludes with the following counsel:—

"I feel confident that such steinings, if properly designed and made in iron by suitable machinery, could be conveyed to the site, put together and sunk by any ordinary Indian well-sinker at a cost that would not be prohibitive, and that they would probably solve this most troublesome and difficult problem, and enormously increase the agricultural possibilities of many hundreds of thousands, or even millions, of acres of land.

"A typical tract so situated is the submontane tract in Behar and the United Provinces, which forms a typical percolation well tract. In years of drought it is impossible to save the rice, though water is, in most cases, only from 5 to 20 feet from the surface. Moreover, an enormous increase in the area of sugar-cane would be brought about if it were possible to irrigate the cane through the hot weather except by water laboriously lifted by human agency out of tiny temporary wells. This is due to the want of efficient wells. A really cheap and efficient percolation well would probably revolutionise agriculture in this tract, enabling the rice crop to be saved (as it is in Madras) by pocottas, or else bullock-power lifts working on wells.

"In my opinion, a few hundreds or even thousands of pounds might very well be expended by the Government of India on the great quest of a cheap and practical percolation well."

DR. RABINDRANATH AS LANDLORD.

The *Indian Daily News* writes:—Dr. Rabin-dranath Tagore is not only a great poet but a big landlord and a good one, too, and his example is quoted in the annual survey and settlement report just issued. The relations between landlords and tenants have constantly been a cause for anxiety to the Government, but that subservience on the part of the latter is not always prejudicial to him is illustrated by the poet's example who "possesses practical ideas regarding management." The Settlement Officer of Naogaon (Rajshahi) writes apropos the Dubalhati estate:—

"A very favourable example of estate Government is shown in the property of the poet, Dr. Rabin-dranath Tagore. The proprietors brook no rivals. Subinfeudation within the estate is forbidden; raiyats are not allowed to sublet on pain of ejectment. There are three divisions of the estate—each under a sub-manager with a staff of tahsildars whose accounts are strictly supervised. Half of the 'dakhilas' are checked by an officer of the head office. Employees are expected to deal fairly with the raiyats and unpopularity earns dismissal. Registration of transfer is granted on a fixed fee but is refused in the case of an undesirable transferee. Remissions of rent are granted when inability to pay is proved. In 1912 it is said that the amount remitted was Rs. 57,595. There are lower primary schools in each division and at Patisar, the centre of management, there is a high English school with 250 students and a charitable dispensary. These are maintained out of a fund to which the estate contributes annually Rs. 1,250 and the raiyats 6 pias per rupee in their rent. There is an annual grant of Rs. 240 for the relief of cripples and the blind. An agricultural bank advances loans to raiyats at 12 per cent. per annum. The depositors are chiefly Calcutta friends of the poet who get interest at 7 per cent. The bank has about Rs. 90,000 invested in loans."

The absentee landlord is generally oppressive as he "leaves his reputation in the hands of unscrupulous agents," but here is an example he can emulate to the advantage of all concerned.

AGRICULTURE IN MADRAS.

The Secretary of State has sanctioned the appointment of four Deputy-Directors of Agriculture for the Madras Presidency. These appointments are connected with the reorganisation of the Provincial Department of Agriculture that will be proceeded with as funds become available.

Literary.

AN EDITOR'S EXPERIENCES.

"A Newspaper in time of War" is the subject of an article contributed by an Editor of, presumably, a *London Daily* to the March number of the *Cornhill Magazine*. It is a very interesting record of his feelings in the various stages of the war:—

My public wanted news of the war, of course, but more than anything else they wanted expression given to their inarticulate fury against Germany and Germany's Kaiser who had brought war into the midst of their comfortable peace. Day by day they craved for someone to do their cursing for them, artistically, philosophically, convincingly. I filled the bill; but what I should have done without Neitzsche, Treitschke, and Bernhardt, I can form no conception. The mad philosopher, the deaf old professor of history, and the soldier-politician kept my readers happy for two months. Here proclaimed to the world was the whole Pan-German doctrine, and no apologist for Germany had a dog's chance against them. I owe to these three noble exponents of the Higher German Culture a debt of gratitude which I can never repay.

Journalists should beware of encouraging in themselves a sense of humour. It hampers them in the exercise of their high functions for instructors of the Public. It would never have done last August, for example, for me to have asked myself what were my qualifications for dealing with problems of military strategy and grand tactics. Yet, I believe, that no lecturer at that Staff College could have served me and my public half so well as one of my ready newspaper writers fortified with Clausewitz and the military maxims of Napoleon. What Neitzsche, Treitschke, and Bernhardt were to the political side of my energetic output, Clausewitz and Napoleon were to the military side. During the early weeks of war they were a very pleasant help in time of trouble.

But after all, the public wants news, and no amount of profound discourses on the higher strategy, and of remorseless exposures of the German War Spirit, can take the place of authentic news from the front. There comes a time when even Bernhardt fails to attract, and when Clausewitz does not throw much light on fortress warfare in trenches. At the beginning of the war we had news in great volume but of more than doubtful authenticity. Poor devastated little Belgium, eager for foreign sympathy and support, did not forbid to the war correspondent the run of his pen. So that while Belgium remained open there was plenty of news of a sort, and we made the most of it. I am afraid that we kept the flag flying at Leige for fully a week after the Germans had battered the forts to pieces, and certainly were not exacting in our use of the word 'Victory'. One of my friends about that time put to me a little Rule of Three sum which contained a moral for newspapers. 'If,' said he, 'five Belgian victories are followed by the German occupation of Brussels, how many victories will the Allies announce before the Germans take Paris?' It was a shrewd thrust. It is as difficult to prevent a writer of newspapers headlines from calling a temporary outpost success a 'victory' as it is to prevent him from calling every soldier or sailor a 'hero'.

I shall never forget the retreat of the British Army

from Mons. It lives in my memory alongside the Black week in December, 1890, when telegrams of disaster in South Africa dribbled in hour after hour. Readers of newspapers get the worst in one blow of print; they learn little which is not print. We got news in dribbles, interspersed by warnings not to publish this or that, interspersed too by private information. We became hardened, but now and then even we can be stretched on the rack of anxiety. So it was during the retreat from Mons. Our readers knew little, we knew much more than we wished to know, or was good for our rest in the small hours of morning that we should know. At one time it looked as if our poor gallant Army would be wiped out, and as if it would hardly be worth while to sweep up the pieces. The public will never know, or at least will never realise, the bloody anguish of that retreat, as it was known to and realised by a few of us at the time. Little wonder that we clung to a half belief in the prosperous Russian legend, and strained our mental eyes from the watch-towers day by day, straining for a sight of the dust of the coming of the Army of Versailles. At last it came, but, oh God, how slow it was in coming!

THE LATE MR. H. G. KEENE.

We regret very much to announce the death of Mr. H. G. Keene, C.I.E., the well known historian of India. A sound scholar of Indian History, a conservative by tendency in his studies, his works on Indian History have won for him deserved encomium. After Mountstuart Elphinstone he is generally the best writer on the Moghul period, and this is the highest tribute that can be paid to any one working in that field of studies.

LITERARY INVENTORS.

The following is taken from *The Bystander*:—

"The Germans, I see, are acknowledging that the idea of submarining British merchant ships came to them from reading a story by Sir A. Conan Doyle in an American magazine, in which this particular form of frightfulness was forecast. Sir Arthur has naturally expressed his regret at having been of unintentional service to the enemy. The fact remains, however, that many of the horrors of the present war were forecast in British fiction, and the Germans have made it a matter of honour not to fall short in any way of the code of ruthlessness drawn up for them by our ever-obliging prophets of national disaster."

The writer then goes on to speculate humorously as to whether after the War, we shall have a new Press Law, which will include a clause "forbidding the writing of prophetic War Stories, or the dissemination of the idea of war in any literary or artistic shape or form." If the creator of *Sherlock Holmes* would now turn to the solution of the problem of peace, he would largely undo the unconscious harm he has wrought by suggestions for warfare.

Educational.

A NOVEL RESOLUTION.

A recent meeting of the Calcutta Senate was marked by the discussion on a rather novel resolution. One of the European members of the University, Dr. E. R. Watson, supported by another European, moved that the Senate view with alarm the rapid increase in the percentage of passes in the University Examinations especially in the Matriculation and B. A. Examinations which had taken place of late. The Resolution concluded by suggesting that an inquiry should be held as to its cause and significance. The final debate is adjourned till the 10th July. It is not known as to the exact measure of truth that lies behind this apprehension. Mr. G. F. Shirras, we are informed, held, after a minute analysis of the figures connected with this, that there was no cause for fear that things were going wrong.

EDUCATION IN VERNACULAR.

The question as to how far it would be desirable to have vernaculars as the media of instruction in Indian schools was discussed in a recent sitting of the Supreme Legislative Council. The mover of the Resolution bearing on this subject, Mr. Rayaningar, said that all things considered it would be well to adopt the proposed method. Not only was it in consonance with the best and largest volume of Indian opinion, it was also the one, as in the case of the spread of female education, that would make for progress. Mr. Rayaningar did not find many supporters among his colleagues whose position might well be expressed in the words of Mr. Surendranath Bannerji, who said that there was much to be said for the measure but a good deal against it. Sir Harcourt Butler's opinion on this point is very interesting :—

He thought, the effect of the present system was that students were overstrained and lost the faculty of grasping facts. He discussed the question of a direct method of teaching and pointed out that the Resolution did not involve any change of educational policy but educational economy. He gave his own experience as showing that prolonged education in vernacular had given better results. Alluding to Pandit Malaviya's suggestion for all India, he expressed his inability to accept the suggestion, but he was of opinion that the question be referred to Local Governments, drawing their attention to that day's debate, and asking them whether any enquiry was necessary. He suggested, in conclusion, that the whole question would be referred to Local Government after the War.

The Resolution was in the end withdrawn.

THE NEED FOR EDUCATION.

India is poor, observes the *Statist*, not because she is wanting in natural resources, but because her people are extremely ignorant and extremely unenterprising. The most urgent need, then, in India is a good widespread system of education. Yet one of the first things done, partly at the suggestion of the Supreme Government, is to cut down in the Budget Estimates for 1915-16 by more than three quarters of a million sterling, the outlay upon education. If possible, it is a graver offence that the medical or sanitation work of India has been interfered with, the reduction under this head being £376,000.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN INDIA.

Babu Motilal Ghosh in the course of his address to the recent Bengal Provincial Congress laid emphasis on an important point—the health of our Students. The increased pressure and strain of University Examinations on their tender bodies tends to render the students physical wrecks by the time they emerge from the colleges, perhaps with diplomas in hand. No language is too strong to condemn a system of University life which undermines the health of its *alumni* and thus leave them entirely useless for any service of profitable kind in after life. This is a matter worthy of the serious consideration of all who have the interests of the rising generation at heart. Mr. Motilal Ghosh suggests that “the first step that should be taken by our authorities to mend matters in this direction should be the appointment of a committee, mainly non-official in character, constituted of leading Indian members of the different Universities, and, with a strong element of medical experts among them.” This committee, he adds, should be sent about the country and asked to enquire into the various particulars concerning student life and report upon them. We believe such a committee will do immense good, and we hope the suggestion will be taken up early by the authorities.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

In connection with the reorganisation of the Education Department of the Government of India it may be stated that the Hon'ble Mr. L. Porter has been appointed Secretary, Kunwar Maharaj Singh as Senior Assistant Secretary, and a Junior Assistant Secretary will be appointed shortly. Mr. H. Sharp has been appointed Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

Legal.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT BILL.

Sir Archdale Earle made the following happy observations with reference to the Local Self-Government Bill in Assam :—

"I trust the Act will have no small effect in the development of the Province. I took up the question of this legislation as soon as I took over charge of the Province. As soon as I had formulated my ideas I consulted public opinion and referred the whole matter to the Government of India. Then as soon as the orders of that Government were received I took steps to introduce the Bill in Council. The Bill will place the Local Boards on a legal basis and give them widely extended powers. It will also inaugurate village Government, which will, I trust, in the course of time bring incalculable blessings to the humble toilers of the soil. I am aware that several members are averse to the permissive provisions contained in the Bill on the subject of taxation for the purpose of railway and tramway construction. I think that there is some misapprehension on the subject, which should be removed. The Hon. Mr. Phukan, for instance, said that whenever the local people wanted a railway, they would in future be told that they had the necessary powers under the Act and should make use of them. This is not, I venture to think, quite a justifiable criticism. Lines of importance will, no doubt, be taken up by Companies independently of the Local Boards. There are, however, cases in which owing to very short lengths of line, no Company will come forward with any proposal. There are also some cases in which tramways may be desirable, and if the Local Boards really want them, they will in future be able, if they wish to do so, to negotiate them. The taxation in such cases need not by any means be permanent. If any scheme for which taxation is raised proves remunerative, taxation would no doubt be at once withdrawn, I really do not think that these provisions, which are of a purely permissive character, will be anything but a benefit to the province and people. If I had taught otherwise I should have been the last to approve of their inclusion in the Bill. In conclusion, I congratulate the Council on having passed the Bill, and trust that it will prove, as I expect that it will, a potent instrument for good in the province."

THE "COMRADE" CASE.

According to the judgment of the Bench of the Punjab Chief Court in the *Comrade* security forfeiture appeal their lordships disposed of the plea of numerical weakness of the clientele of the *Comrade* by saying that Mahomed Ali hoped that the limited circle of his readers would take their cue from him and in their turn do their best to spread similar ideas throughout the country. The contagious process by which Indian communities assimilated misleading doctrine was liable to work with unexpected rapidity. After citing 40 Calcutta, 466, the Judgment says :—'It appears to be impossible to justify writings of the kind at a time when the feelings of the Mussulman population in India were already being excited, and strained under the grave development of the present war. Any responsible Editor in India who seizes such a time and opportunity for ventilating his personal opinions as described does so at great personal risk. In the present case, there appears to be grave reasons for thinking that Government have not taken an exaggerated view of the harm which can be done in this way, either by direct suggestion or by the still more pernicious use of inuendo, and therefore this is not a case for interference by the Court, even if our powers of interference were wider than we conceive them to be.' Their Lordships also awarded Rs. 250 costs to the Government Advocate.

PUBLIC SAFETY BILL.

While it (Public Safety Bill) will not deter the real revolutionaries, says the *Bengalee*, the sense of injustice and repression which its enforcement will create in the community will have, we are afraid, a most undesirable effect upon the sensitive and sentimental youths of the country from whom recruits to revolutionary nationalism may be drawn. This is why, in the interest of both the Government and the people, we are so opposed to this measure. But though the Act has been passed, its operation and application rests with Lord Hardinge, and so far as Bengal is concerned, with Lord Carmichael. Both of them, at least, are free from bureaucratic prepossessions. They have given ample proofs of their far-seeing statesmanship. They are both imperialists of the true type. And they, at least, need not be told of the serious dangers of an Act of this kind. * * *

Medical.

PRECAUTIONS AGAINST PLAGUE.

Dr. A. B. Arora, Heath Officer, Lahore, has addressed the following letter to the Press regarding precautions to be observed for the prevention of plague :—

1. Destroy rat flea :—

(a) on the rats—by trapping, killing by drowning in water and then burning them.

(b) in the beddings, and clothings—by exposing them daily to the action of direct sunlight.

(c) in the crevices of walls and dark corners of the rooms and other places—by fumigating with Cresol. Put about 2 ounces of Cresol on smouldering cowdung-cake fire so that it fumes (not burns), shut the doors, windows and other apertures into the room and keep them so for two hours.

2. Evacuate the premises at once where dead rats are found.

3. Inoculation against plague is strongly recommended. It is a safe preventive measure.

4. If any friends or relations come to you from a plague infected locality, all their beddings, clothes and other articles of personal luggage should be *at once* thoroughly disinfected by exposing them to sunshine as mentioned above and then allow them to come into contact with your beddings, clothings, etc.

5. Keep your sleeping rooms, kitchens, store-rooms, in fact, the whole premises of your house, scrupulously clean.

Do not give any shelter or food to rats.

PROVISION FOR MEDICAL AID.

In September and December last year grants aggregating Rs. 3,33,697 were distributed among certain Madras District Boards and Municipal Councils, out of the provision of Rs. 10 lakhs made in the Civil Budget Estimate for 1914-15 on account of grants to Local Bodies for the construction of medical buildings. A further sum of Rs. 2,57,780 has now been distributed to the District Boards of Bellary, South Canara, Tanjore, Tinnevely and Vizagapatam, and to the Municipal Councils of Cuddalore, Guntur, Mayavaram, Nellore and Palamcottah. The Accountant-General has been requested to place the grants now sanctioned as well as the sum of Rs. 25,000 sanctioned for the hospital at Himlipatam at the disposal of the Local Bodies concerned at an early date.

LIEUTENANT HIRA SINGH ANAND.

Dr. Hira Singh Anand, who was a casual student of the Lahore Medical College, joined the Edinburgh University in 1911, graduated in 1913, and obtained the diploma in Public Health in 1914. He is believed to be the first Indian who has finished such an enormous amount of work in so short a time. He joined the Indian Ambulance Corps in November last at Brighton where he was granted an interview by their Majesties the King and the Queen. In recognition of his services, he has since been granted a temporary commission as Lieutenant in the I.M.S. with prospects of confirmation, as he fulfils the conditions of I.M.S. Dr. Hira Singh Anand is the son of Sardar Teja Singh Anand, Storekeeper, Kohat.

DEATH FROM EXPLOSION.

A French Surgeon, M. Sencert, recently reported to the Societe de Chirurgie the case of a soldier who was killed by being less than a yard away from the point of explosion of a bursting shell of large calibre. The man had not even been grazed by any metallic fragment and had no external wound, but at the necropsy both his lungs were found to be burst. Many deaths under similar circumstances have been noted since the outbreak of the war, for which various more or less complicated explanations have been given. Fulminating toxic gases from the explosion and sudden nervous shock have been suggested as the causes, but M. Sencert points out that these hypotheses are unnecessary, and that a purely mechanical cause is a sufficient explanation.

GUN DEAFNESS AND ITS PREVENTION.

Dr. Horne has pointed out in the *Lancet* that in modern naval warfare injuries to the hearing result in irremediable deafness. The injuries to the drum and the nerve endings are due to sudden condensation or rarefaction of the air in the external auditory meatus. One ear is generally the more affected. Gun deafness is in a great measure preventable. The mouth should be kept open so as to equalise the atmospheric pressure. The doctor states that naval officers often chew tooth-picks whilst the big guns are being fired, finding this accomplishes the same end. Aural plugs are strongly commended. The finger is objected to on the ground that it is not aseptic. Plugging with cotton-wool as practised by Surgeon-General Suzuki was not found efficient. The material suggested by the doctor for plugging the ear is jeweller's wax.

Science

WOMAN ASTRONOMERS.

In the astronomical world the claims of women are being recognised. Quite recently, at the general meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society, a proposal was put forward for the admission of women as Fellows and Associates of the Society. Legal opinion had been taken as to the validity of this new departure, and a supplementary charter, it was thought, would be necessary. The original Charter granted by King George III. did not provide for the contingency that had now arisen but, as the President of the Society well said: "There did not appear to be any reasonable cause for making sex a cause for exclusion in these days." The Resolution was put forward and carried by 59 votes to 3, so that in course of time, doubtless, the Association will elect women members.

DR. J. C. BOSE IN AMERICA.

The New York Times has published the following account of a demonstration given by Dr. J. C. Bose at Washington before Mr. Bryan, Secretary of State, U. S. A., and a group of United States officials:—

"In the Diplomatic Reception Room of the State Department this afternoon, Dr. J. C. Bose performed before Secretary Bryan and a group of State Department officials experiments, which showed that plants had sensitiveness just like human beings. The experiments were conducted with living plants, but the Secretary of State showed the greatest interest when Dr. Bose produced a chart that indicated in wavering lines the effect of alcohol on plant life. By means of a delicate and complicated instrument, Dr. Bose made plants record the emotions they experienced as the result of stimulation. He explained that if a man was pinched on the wrist a certain shock was communicated to the brain. To demonstrate the same principle with reference to a plant he pinched one of the growing things that he had brought with him and immediately a fine needle attached to a lever connected with the plant became agitated and exhibited its emotion by making dots on the smoked side of a plate of glass. Dr. Bose put one plant to death by giving it a dose of cyanide of potassium, and Secretary Bryan and the others watched the death struggle with bated breath. Mr. Bryan expressed thanks to Professor Bose."

PHOTOGRAPHING YOURSELF AT A DISTANCE.

A curious method of photographing oneself when at quite a distance from the camera is proposed by M. Morisot. Take a wood spring clothespin and shape out one end so that it grasps the bulb of the shutter and the spring tends to press on the bulb. Then the other ends are brought together so as to release the bulb, and are tied with string or thread. On this is put a piece of fuse of some length. Lighting the fuse, the person goes to the distant point before the camera, and when the string is burned the clothespin presses the bulb and makes the exposure.

NAVIGATION OF AIRSHIPS.

The navigation of airships at night, or in a fog, has been facilitated within the borders of Germany by a set of wireless telegraph stations that encircle the country. These are said to enable the positions of airships to be determined easily, as the Zeppelins are fitted with wireless apparatus. The positions of the vessels can be judged by those on board, as *Knowledge* explains, "by means of the intensities of the signals received from several stations These stations are erected upon the smokestacks, and are worked automatically, signals being sent out without the constant attendance of an operator."

Such an arrangement has possibilities that will doubtless be extended to other countries when an airship service becomes a matter of course between one town and another; for a line of such signals in working order overcomes the fog difficulty of obscurity and the stillness of air that accompanies fog could be duly taken advantage of.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CHEMISTS.

The suggestion made by Sir William Ramsay in the *Times*; that a National Council of Chemists should be formed to collaborate in the scheme for extending the British colour industry has aroused keen interest among chemical manufacturers and scientific chemists. It has been suggested that the scope of the proposed Council should be enlarged so as to enlist its aid, not only in the promotion of the dye industry, but in the resuscitation and development of other British chemical industries. It is held that if the proposed Council were given the authority derived from appointment by the Government, and if it consisted of men of high standing, it might be possible for some of its members to visit the various chemical works with the view of bringing manufacturers into closer touch with one another.

Personal.

MR. AND MRS. GANDHI IN MADRAS.

We are glad to have Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi in our midst after years of self-sacrifice in the cause of our countrymen in South Africa. Their arrival in Madras on the 17th instant was rightly the occasion of a tremendous ovation from all classes of the people who thronged to welcome the patriots with befitting enthusiasm. More than all his achievements in South Africa Mr. Gandhi's ascetic simplicity of life, his self-denial and the lofty character of his private and public virtues have endeared him to all classes, and the inspiration of such an example of saintly life can seldom be overestimated. With characteristic gentleness and modesty Mr. Gandhi discusses all topics of general interest from physical exercise and diet to popular education and the mystery of the Trinity with an incessant congregation of devoted visitors. It is happy to note that Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi will stay in Madras for over a fortnight.

It need hardly be said that they have been the recipients of numerous addresses and parties from various bodies. Under the auspices of the Indian South African League a large public meeting was held on the grounds of the Victoria Public Hall on the 21st with Dr. Sir S. Subramania Iyer in the chair when Mr. G. A. Natesan read the address on behalf of the League. Mr. Gandhi replied in suitable terms. On the 23rd Mr. Gandhi was invited to a party at the Cosmopolitan Club and on the 24th at the Madras Bar Association when he spoke a few words appropriate to the respective occasion. The Mahajana Sabha and the Anjuman have each given a party in his honour. The Borahs, the Gujaratis, the Vysias and the Students of Madras have also invited the illustrious visitors. Several private parties are also being given. Thus the visit of Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi has been availed of by every section of the citizens of Madras which is no less enthusiastic in honouring the great leader than the rest of India.

MR. ROY OF LAHORE.

The *Asahi* of Cawnpore states that Mr. Roy, Journalist of Lahore, has been sent to the battlefield of France at Government expense to discharge the duties entrusted him by the latter. It is surmised that he will start a newspaper for the interest and information of Indian soldiers there or otherwise keep them informed of the war news.

HAVILDAR DARWAN SINGH, V.C.

Havildar Darwan Singh, V.C., returned from the front in Europe and reached Bombay on the 18th February. He reached Kotdwar, Garhwal, (O. R. R.) on the 27th ultimo and was welcomed with great enthusiasm by the Garhwal public.

The 'Garhwal Sabha' also had passed a resolution on 31st December, 1914, to welcome the hero with honour on his return. Accordingly some prominent members of the Sabha had reached there in time though they had very short notice. The members of the Garhwal Sabha and the residents of Dogadda gave a grand feast to the hero and his party. On the 28th February the party reached Lansdowne Cantonment at about 11 a. m. The soldiers of 2nd Battalion 39 Garhwal Rifles had filed themselves in two rows for about a mile to receive the hero. At the Parade Ground the soldiers of 1st Battalion 39 Garhwal Rifles, to which the hero belonged, received him with great ovation. Subedar Ganga Singh of 2-39 G. R. then introduced and praised the hero in a short but fitting speech and urged the other soldiers and recruits present to follow his brave example. The wounds of the hero have all healed up and he is still a young healthy man of 34.

The 'Garhwal Sabha' has opened a 'Darwan Singh Fund.' Its subscriptions will be utilized in a perpetual memorial of Havildar Darwan Singh, V.C. The Secretary of the Sabha will be glad to receive donations from the generous public.

SIR K. G. GUPTA.

Commenting on the retirement of Sir K. G. Gupta, the *Times* observed :

"Sir Krishna (then Mr.) Gupta entering upon his duties on March 9, 1908, is the first Indian to serve on the Council for the full seven years' term. It is well known that in his hands and those of his successive Muslim colleagues, the experiment, as we then described it, has been entirely successful.

"Lord Crewe's appreciation of the service of Sir Krishna Gupta is so marked that it is understood that he would have welcomed some opportunity to retain them. But the statutory power of the Secretary of State to reappoint for five years is exercised with extreme rarity, and indeed is likely to fall into almost complete desuetude, owing to the desirability now so generally recognised of utilising the most recent Indian experience in recruiting the Council."

Political

ROUMANIA AND THE WAR.

There are probably about 3½ million Roumanians subject to Austria-Hungary, the bulk of them being in Hungary and the most compact group of them in the region of Transylvania where they form at least half of the total population. Owing to gerrymandering manipulation these Roumanians in Hungary have consistently been deprived of their due representation in the Hungarian Parliament. Thus in 1896, out of 413 members only one was a Roumanian, and the highest figure ever reached by Roumanians in the Hungarian Parliament is only 14 in 1906. At the last election, only 5 Roumanians were returned. The Roumanians in Hungary further labour under great educational disabilities. Although the "Law of Nationalities" provides that the State is to provide special schools for Roumanians, this duty has never been discharged. The Roumanians in Hungary are further handicapped by Magyar refusal to allow their language to be used officially.

Roumania cannot be indifferent to the hard lot of these Roumanians in Hungary. It must in fairness be allowed, however, that the lot of the Roumanians in Hungary is not worse than that of Jews in Roumania. But that counts for little in Roumania's eyes. In the past, she had only desired to secure better treatment for the Roumanians in Hungary, but since the outbreak of this war she has been considering the possibility of conquering and absorbing that part of Hungary in which the Roumanian element is strong. Indeed, nothing has held her back but (1) the Hohenzollern sympathies of the late king, and (2) the desirability of a preliminary agreement with the Balkan States properly so called—for Roumania herself is not strictly a Balkan State—and with Greece. The time for intervention seems at hand.

If Roumania does intervene, it will be to some purpose. Thanks largely to the late king, who raised Roumania from a petty and semi-barbarous State to strength and prosperity. She possesses an excellent army, the field strength of which is about 300,000. Co-operating with Russia, Roumania could deal a very dangerous blow on the Austro-Hungarian flank, and the internal complications in Hungary which would follow would have an important effect on the fate of the remarkable empire of Francis Joseph.

THE U. P. EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The text of the Proclamation for the constitution of an Executive Council in the United Provinces, which has been vetoed by the House of Lords, is as follows:—

1. A Council shall be constituted in the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh with effect from the 1st June 1915, for the purpose of assisting the Lieutenant-Governor in the Executive Government of the Province.

2. The number of the members of the Council shall be two, or such other number, not exceeding four, as the Governor-General in Council may from time to time determine.

3.—(1) As long as the number determined for members of the Council is two, one member of the Council shall be a person who at the time of his appointment has been in the service of the Crown in India of at least twelve years and the other member shall be either a person so qualified or a person who at the time of his appointment has resided in India for at least twelve years.

(2) If at any time the number determined for members of the Council exceeds two;

(a) two members of the Council shall be persons who at the time of their appointment have been in the service of the Crown in India for at least twelve years;

(b) the other member or members shall be either persons so qualified or persons who at the time of their appointment have resided in India for at least twelve years.

4. If a member is absent from illness or otherwise, the Lieutenant-Governor may, subject to the conditions prescribed by clause 3, appoint a person qualified under that clause to be a temporary member during such absence.

5. In any case which, in the judgment of the Lieutenant-Governor, is of high importance and essentially affects the public interest and welfare, the Lieutenant-Governor may direct that such case shall be decided in accordance with his opinion, the opinion of the majority of the Council to the contrary notwithstanding.

6.—(1) Where the Lieutenant-Governor makes a direction under clause 5, he shall record a statement of his reasons for making such direction, and any dissentient member may record a statement of the reasons for his dissent.

(2) A copy of every statement recorded under clause (1) of this rule shall forthwith be submitted to the Governor-General.

7. Save as provided in clause 5, the opinion of the majority of the Council shall prevail; and in the case of equality of votes the Lieutenant-Governor shall have a second or casting vote.

8. If the Lieutenant-Governor is obliged to absent himself from any meeting of the Council, from indisposition or any other cause, all the functions which are exercisable in Council by the Lieutenant-Governor shall be discharged by the Vice-President of the Council appointed under section 4 of the Indian Council Act, 1909.

INDIAN TROOPS ABROAD.

There are 200,000 in Europe. A mixed force of 80,000 is stationed in Egypt. Over 1,500 have encamped in British East Africa. These figures point out what India has done up to date in men alone.

General.

TRAVELLERS TO EUROPE.

The Punjab Government has notified for general information that all British subjects proceeding to England *via* France are required on landing at Marseilles to produce passports or consular passes. These passports will be granted by the Local Government on application being made through the Deputy Commissioner to whom all persons requiring passports should apply for the necessary application form. Two copies of a small unmounted photograph of the applicant are also required, one to be affixed to the passport, and the duplicate to be placed on record with the application form. The prefecture at Marseilles states that the visa of the French Consul at the port of embarkation is not obligatory.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF BELGIUM.

The Prof. Giddes has written an interesting letter to Mr. Bransford, the well-known author of *Interpretations and Forecasts*, in which he refers to the question of the reconstruction of Belgium. The Professor has asked for leave of absence from the University Court of St. Andrew's for the summer session with a view to apply himself to the gigantic task of Belgian reconstruction. He indicates in this letter how he would tackle with the big financial problem involved in this scheme. *The Christian Commonwealth* summarises his letter thus:

"In a letter to the well-known author of 'Interpretations and Forecasts,' Mr. Bransford, Professor Giddes shows that he clearly realises that in town-planning for Belgium he must face financial questions as well as organise the laying-out of cities on well-thought-out lines, and these he solves in characteristic fashion. 'Besides canalising private beneficiaries, why not educate our Governments towards advancing a reconstruction loan to Belgium? The whole conception of social finance must come up for consideration now. Social finance is largely the canalisation of labour power towards future without capitalism of past, and thus in repairing Belgium we might be helping a larger world—towards energy notations and other corresponding notations.'

"He sees how in India there could with great general advantage be a compatibility without money altogether. 'Here, for instance, are the poorest labourers on earth, yet largely idle. If

craftsmen, masons, bricklayers, etc., could be sent among them as eager 'servants of India' they could improve their homes indefinitely in their ample leisure time. So for the cleansing of wells, renewal of religion, the recreation of art, etc., and if in India, why not in Belgium?' What he would advocate, therefore, would be a division of labour on some other than purely 'mechanicological lines, hierarchical lines, unsummarised methods,' but which would reveal a ray of ethnic, civic, psychic, organic and æsthetic vision! So Belgium, under the magic touch of this practical visionary, who sees in its ruined cities and desolate wastes a great chance, may rise again clothed in more than its pristine splendour, glorious alike in its unrivalled past and in the prospect of a noble future."

INCREASE OF LUXURY IN INDIA.

The *Anrita Bazaar Patrika* has a very interesting article on the "Universal Increase of Luxury" in India in which it draws prominent attention to the evil factors which at present go to swell the cost of living among the Indians:—

"To the very rich, whether here or elsewhere, it does not matter much what they spend on their personal pleasure, though Tolstoy insists that the luxuries of the rich are paid for by the want and sufferings of the poor. But when you find men earning a bare competence aping the habits of the wealthy, then you may be sure of the ruin of the country. Fancy, many Indians, barely above want, use motor-cars or have several carriages and horses. Not only do the vast majority of our middle class people live beyond their means but also the ryots. The forefathers of these people kept excellent health though bare-bodied and bare-footed; but now they can't do without coats and boots and other costly things—all the same, they die like flies from malaria and other deadly diseases. If Englishmen and Anglo-Indians, rolling in wealth, feel the necessity of frugality, how much more urgent such need must be in the case of a starving people like the Indians whose average income is Rs. 27 per annum? If the Indians wish to save themselves from an ultimate extinction, they must revert to the simple life of their ancestors."

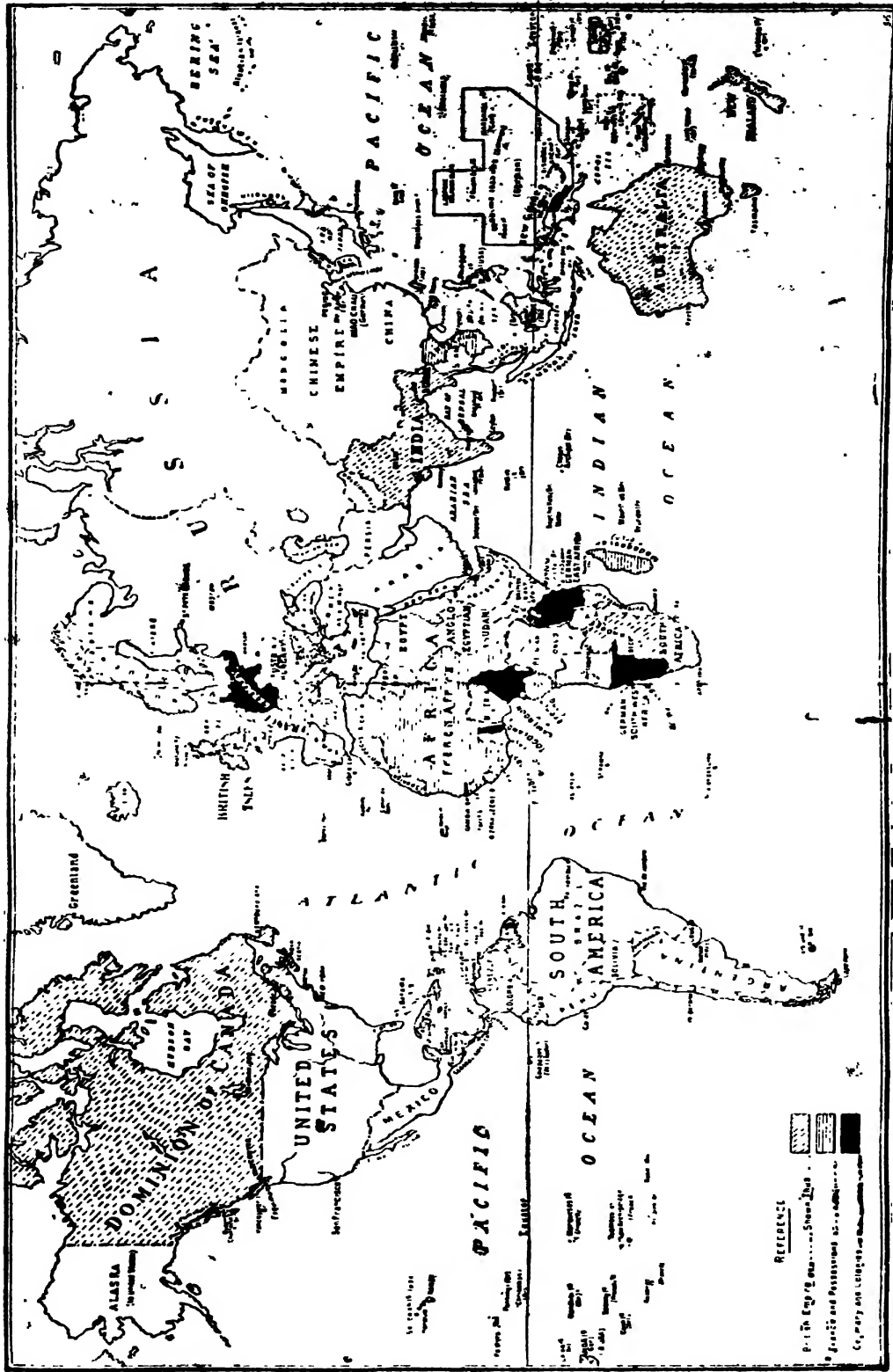
THE LATE MR. GOKHALE'S PORTRAIT.

There is evidently a large demand for the portraits of the late Mr. Gokhale. We understand that photos of the late leader can be had of Mr. P. S. Sastri, Carnatic Studio, Madras, and also of Messrs. Waman, Irani and Company, East Street, Poona, at moderate rates.



THE MAP OF EUROPE

From Thacker's War Map.



THE MAP OF THE WORLD.

THE INDIAN REVIEW

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THE WAR AND THE EDUCATED CLASSES

BY

THE HON. MR. P. S. SIVASWAMI AIYER, C.I.E.,

Member, Executive Council, Madras.

THE truth of the remark that there is a soul of goodness in things evil has never been more forcibly illustrated than by the remarkable feeling of solidarity between the component parts of the British Empire which has been brought about by the war that is now being waged in all the continents of the old world. No part of the Empire has been quicker than India to rally round the British flag or made more important contributions to the military defence of the Empire. The substantial expressions of enthusiastic loyalty which have poured forth from this country have, by their depth and extent, caused a feeling of agreeable surprise in Britain as they have upset the calculations of Germany. That the self governing colonies peopled by their own race should be anxious to support the Empire in the hour of danger was taken for granted by the British public. But, whether their fellow-subjects of alien races and creeds in India would share the same devotion to the Empire was a matter on which some misgivings were perhaps not unnatural. No doubt could have been entertained as to the loyalty of the ruling chiefs, or of the army in India. But what would be the attitude of the educated classes who were such frequent and severe critics of the administration and who did not hesitate to express freely their grievances and aspirations? Was their discontent of the nature of disaffection, or was it only such legitimate discontent as is felt and expressed by a constitutional opposition, by men who wish to remedy defects in the administration and make it more responsive to

public opinion? Those who really knew the educated classes could not possibly feel any doubt as to their loyalty. In the nature of things it is inevitable that the views of a bureaucracy firmly convinced of the excellence of the existing administration and the views of its outside critics should in many respects be divergent. The advocates of order and of progress are apt to lay over-emphasis on their respective ideals and attach insufficient weight to the claims of the other ideal. If the political reformer in his impatient desire for progress makes light of the difficulties, the members of the bureaucracy, who are wedded to the existing order, are too much obsessed by them to move forward. Members of opposite parties are not always fair in their criticisms, nor over-ready to believe in the purity of their opponents' motives. But he would have been a superficial observer who inferred any tendency to disloyalty from the criticisms, very often sharp, of the machinery or measures of the administration. Of all the various classes in India, it is the educated class that is really best qualified to judge of the benefits of the British rule and the advantages of inclusion in the British Empire. The masses of the people, no doubt, appreciate the blessings of peace, security and even-handed justice, but the vast majority of them have no knowledge of history and of the disorders and misgovernment from which the country was saved by British rule. They have little knowledge of the Germans or of their character or methods of administration, or of the comparative superiority of British administration to that of any other Euro-

pean nation. They are undoubtedly loyal, but their loyalty is of the passive type. The attitude of the villager is generally one of indifference to the remote abstraction of a monarch so long as his class customs and village institutions are untouched and is expressed in the saying 'what matters it, if Rama reigns, or Ravana reigns.' This feeling is slowly and gradually being transformed into one of a little more interest in the affairs of the great world outside their villages and is largely due to the influence of the Press and those who can read. The expressions of loyalty and devotion to the British Raj that have been heard throughout the land have proceeded, not from the inarticulate masses, but from the literate classes and the thinking portion of the public. It is the same Press that in times of peace indulges in the most outspoken criticism of the Government that now sets itself to the publication, reverberation and diffusion of sentiments of loyalty. It is one of the most gratifying features of the present situation that the conduct of the Indian Press in dealing with the war has, with a few stray exceptions here and there, been inspired by sincere and unquestionable loyalty. The voices that are heard in the Press and on the platform, in councils and associations, are the voices of the educated classes. They realize more clearly than the rest of their countrymen the gravity of the issues at stake and the menace to liberty, humanity and civilization implied in the ascendancy of German militarism. Keen as the most advanced political reformer may be about progress, he knows that it is impossible for him to achieve his political ideal of a United India governed on constitutional lines, except under the fostering care of the nation which has set the example of political freedom and ordered progress to the rest of the world. The educated Indian is the product of British rule, and he owes everything that distinguishes him from the mass of his country-

men to the boon of English education which has broadened his mental outlook and imbued him with higher ideals and aspirations. His loyalty is not the merely instinctive loyalty of the Briton at home or the Colonial, but the outcome of gratitude for benefits conferred and of the conviction that the progress of India is indissolubly bound up with the integrity and solidarity of the British Empire. The loyalty of the Colonial is the loyalty of a petted child who is assiduously kept in good humour and cannot stand the strain of the slightest attempt at dictation or interference by the Mother Country, be it in the matter of the treatment of Asiatic immigrants or the question of tariffs or any other question. The educated Indian, on the other hand, knows that for as long a time as the practical politician need look into, the British connection is necessary to secure him against internal disorder and external aggression. The suspension of all political agitation in the country is proof of the desire of the educated classes to say or do nothing that may cause the least embarrassment to the Government. It is not that the carping critic of Government, the radical Indian doctrinaire, and the political missionary have to use the language of the *Times* History of the War, been silenced, discountenanced or converted by the millions but that far more than the millions these various classes of critics have always realized that any weakening of the British Empire must affect the conditions necessary for the peaceful and steady development of an Indian nation. Agitation in peaceful times for political privileges is certainly not inconsistent with deep-seated loyalty. That the educated classes should desire to have a larger share in the direction of the administration or larger opportunities for the exercise of responsibility is not unnatural. How far such aspirations can or will be gratified is a question which the writer does not propose to consider.

[In connection with the above contribution, the following passages from the Hon. Mr. Sivaram Aiyer's recent Convocation Address to the Graduates of the Madras University will be read with interest—Ed. I.R.].

The war is equally pregnant with lessons to the critics of the educated classes. Would this wondrous manifestation of deep and genuine loyalty have been possible but for the influence of education? The educated classes of India are not so convinced of their perfection as to resent honest and sympathetic criticism, however severe of their faults. But the critic who heaps contempt on the flower of the intelligence of the people, who denies the right of the educated Indian to reflect or represent the views of his countrymen, and who seeks to undermine his influence with them, is no true friend of British rule.

Louis Kossuth and the Hungarian Revival

BY MR. K. M. PANNIKKAR,

OF CHRIST CHURCH, OXFORD.

NOW that the eyes of the civilised world are centred on the Carpathians, where the fate of Hungary is being decided, it is of more than passing importance that we should know something of the great revival of that country in the last century which culminated in the establishment of the Dual Monarchy as it is now constituted. To understand the problems which lie behind the war and the way in which the Eastern campaign is being conducted, a knowledge of the relations that existed between Austria and Hungary is absolutely essential. We can best comprehend it if we study the life of the greatest of Hungarian patriots and statesmen—Louis Kossuth.

Louis Kossuth was born in the village of Monok in the neighbourhood of Tokay, famous all over the world for its wines. He was the eldest of a family of five. His father was an advocate and seem to have possessed considerable property in the country. As a boy Louis had shown indications of his genius. After a preliminary education in the Calvinistic College of Saros Patak, he took to the study of Law. At 21 he returned home after qualifying himself for an advocate and began to practise under his father. It was at this time that his eyes were opened to the true condition of his country.

Hungary in the beginning of the 19th century was still suffering from all the social and political evils of a mediæval state. The "Nobiles"—the class to which Kossuth belonged—were free from all taxation and immune from ordinary punishments of law. They could still force labour from the peasants and had all the government of the country in their hands. The peasants, on the contrary, were burdened with a very heavy taxation. Their industries were killed by a sort of monopoly which the Austrian manufacturers had. In municipal and local administrations they had very little voice. Kossuth recognised that these were the true causes that undermined the strength of the Hungarian people. His experience in the county council, of which he was a member by virtue of the class to which he belonged, convinced him that if political amelioration was desired, the first thing that should be done must be to end these rigid distinctions that suck-

ed the life-blood of the community. To this end he began to work, and we shall in the following pages see how far he succeeded in achieving it.

The great event that marked the turning point of his life was the Polish Revolution of 1831. The Russian Government crushed it with an iron hand and Metternich, in the true spirit of the "Holy Alliance," was in whole-hearted sympathy with the repressive policy of the Czar. He ordered that the Polish refugees should not in any way be helped by the Hungarians—Hungary being itself under the heel of the conqueror gave a ready welcome to the Poles in spite of the orders from Vienna. Kossuth harboured many exiles in his own house. At this point of his life he was a strict partisan of authority and even exercised his influence over the peasants in that direction when they rose up in arms against the nobility.

His actual political career began in 1832. He was elected as a delegate to the Diet, where he joined the reform party and fervently advocated the amelioration of the condition of the peasantry. The liberal party, to which he belonged, wanted to reform the unjust laws which impoverished the peasantry and thus ruined the country. Opposition to this reform was very strong and came chiefly from the Catholic prelates, who owned a large part of the land. The great Empress-Queen Maria Theresa tried to set the grievances right and issued from the throne an "Urbarium," which defined and recognised the peculiar rights of the peasantry. It was not sanctioned by the Diet, and was accepted only provisionally.

The leaders of this movement for reform were Nagy Pal and Kolcezy Fornez. Pal was a man of considerable parts. All his attempts to get the *urbarium* made the law of the land met with failure in the Diet, which was predominated by the "Nobiles" and prelates. However, his fiery eloquence first roused the spirit of liberty and justice which was soon to bear fruit under the able lead of Kolcezy Fornez and Louis Kossuth. Fornez was a poet of a high order, in whom was mingled an abhorrence of social tyranny and an enthusiasm for the Cause of Liberty which we associate with an idealist. His poetic imagination, his impassioned eloquence, his pure and

elevated character, all gave him a prominence in rank of liberal reformers. Kossuth joined this party. He did not play any leading part in the first one or two years in the deliberations of the Diet, but was keenly observant of the things that passed before him and the side which he was soon to guide. He, however, did signal service to his party by taking to another sort of political work which soon brought him into prominence.

A free press, Kossuth recognised, is the first necessity for any sort of national movement. The Austrian Government had gagged the press, and political journalism did not exist in Hungary. To remedy this defect Kossuth started a paper called "Parliamentary Messenger," which reported and criticised the proceedings of the Diet. The true position of affairs, he said, was sure to be understood by the public from the speeches of Deak and Kolcezy. This was Hungary's first political newspaper.

An important event happened in Hungary at this time. Some young men of Pressburg had started a debating society called Pressburgo Casino. It had its regular meetings without any interruption when the Diet was sitting. When the society was dissolved and the members went home, four of their leaders were arrested and accused of high treason. This caused a sensation throughout Hungary. Kossuth pleaded their cause vigorously in his paper and attacked the actions of the ministers as unconstitutional and unjustifiable. He was ordered to desist from the publication, and on refusing was arrested on a charge of sedition.

He was detained in prison for two years before his case was taken for trial. He was condemned by the Court to four years of imprisonment but the Diet that met insisted, before any other business was done, that Kossuth should be released from prison. The Government yielded, and Kossuth came out of the fortress of Buda with the halo of a political martyr and the enthusiasm of one who has suffered for a cause.

The first thing he did after his release was to start a new political paper call "Pesti Hirnap." In spite of the many difficulties put in the way by a strict censorship, Kossuth contrived to attack the Government while keeping himself strictly within the law. His message was addressed to the peasants and the poorer class of people. He secured the assistance of the most talented men of the country, and the journal became a force which was enthusiastically supported by the people.

The rapid ascendancy of the extreme methods preached by Kossuth aroused the fears of the more moderate politicians. Among them was a man of rare intellectual gifts, a genuine sense of patriotism and irreproachable purity of character. This was Count Stephen Szecsenyi, who had till now employed himself in the development of science and the improvement of communications in his country. Szecsenyi prided himself that he was the only practical statesman of Hungary. He now came forward to attack his more violent compatriot as having an intention to revolutionise the government. In his eyes Kossuth was a demagogue who advocated extreme measures to gain popularity for himself, and who to Szecsenyi was no more than an impatient idealist. Szecsenyi's attack was not the abuse of a rival. It came from deeper principles. Szecsenyi was a conservative by nature who wanted to compromise the liberal tendencies of the times with the then existing form of government. He was genuinely alarmed at the democratic tendencies of Kossuth.

The Diet of 1843 was one of great importance. Kossuth took up the question of taxation. Equality in taxation was one of the principles bequeathed to the world by the French Revolution. The exemption of the nobility from all kinds of payment was one of the chief grievances of the Hungarian people. Kossuth now proposed to reform this abuse. He soon converted the country to his opinions. The Government strained every nerve to defeat him and found that it was impossible without "rallying the Moderates." Szecsenyi, who had himself advocated equality of taxation, now joined hands with the Government fearing that a success in this matter would make Kossuth and his violent methods more powerful in the country.

Another matter on which Kossuth was forcing the attention of the people was the unjust tariffs of the Austrian Government. The Austrian manufacturers enjoying monopoly and protected from foreign competition by prohibitive taxes, preyed upon the household industries of the peasants of Hungary. Kossuth earnestly and spiritedly protested against the injustice.

The Diet of 1847 was approaching. It promised to be very stormy. Kossuth was elected for Pesth, the capital of Hungary, in a hotly contested election. His extreme views had alienated many moderate followers who now openly joined Szecsenyi. In the Diet Kossuth deliberately adopted the encouragement of Slav claims, the fruits of which we are witnessing now. A repre-

sentation was drawn up in which he advocated all the "root and branch reforms," which the people were clamouring for. The Government supported by Szechenyi opposed the motion strongly but it was carried in the lower house by a majority of 13. The representation was to be laid before the King by a Deputation. Vienna seemed to resent all this radical reform. But the general revolutionary tendency of the Europe of 1848 made the King yield to their demands and Count Louis Bathyanyi was proclaimed the first minister responsible to the Hungarian Diet. But the Diet was still different. The franchise was so limited that only the "Nobles" had any political right. Therefore to make the Diet democratic, Kossuth, who was the financial minister in the Bathyanyi Cabinet, proposed that the Diet should dissolve itself. On the 18th of March before the Assembly was actually dissolved, Kossuth moved his resolution on equal taxation, trial by jury and manhood franchise. The Revolution seemed to be complete and Kossuth seemed to have achieved all that he was working for. But the Viennese Court, though apparently brought to submission, was not willing to yield its rights without a struggle.

The Revolution in Italy alarmed them, and they feared that it might spread to Hungary. Hungary at the instance of Kossuth had refused to send a contingent or vote supplies unless the Croations were disarmed.

The Imperial Government therefore withdrew the concessions previously granted. Great excitement followed in Hungary and Republican demonstrations took place everywhere. Vienna once more yielded and the Hungarians regained the Constitution. In Hungary itself the Croats and the Serbs resented the Magyar domination. Baron Jellachich, who was appointed to the Ban of Croatia, supported the imperial claims with a view of founding a Croatian kingdom independent of Hungary. Jellachich now marched into Hungary with the silent support of Vienna. After some preliminary successes he met with a disastrous defeat at the battle of Pakozo and had to retreat to Croatia. The Imperial Government had supported Jellachich, which made an open breach between Hungary and Austria inevitable. On the 2nd of December Francis Joseph succeeded Ferdinand to the throne. The Hungarian Diet refused to acknowledge and from this day till his exile Kossuth was virtually the ruler of Hungary.

Prince Windischgratz led an Austrian army into Hungary. A series of defeats were inflicted on the opposing army. Bathyanyi, with a weak-

ness amounting to treason and treachery, retired from public life at this juncture. Upon Kossuth fell the duty of defending his country and meeting the situation as best possible. At this moment Hungary found a man of military genius in Arthur Gorgei. He re-conquered the positions won by the Austrians and took Pesth on the 25th of May 1849. The Diet proclaimed the independence of Hungary, and Kossuth was elected president. The Austrian domination seemed to be over.

When the spirit of liberty had thus asserted its rights and the Austrian hopes were all but extinguished, the "Holy Alliance" of Metternich came to the rescue. The Czar offered to assist the young Emperor in crushing his rebellious subjects. A Russian army under Prince Paskevitch attacked Hungary from the North. The quarrel between Kossuth and Gorgei made the Hungarian defence inefficient. The rebellion was soon crushed, and Kossuth had to fly from the country for whose cause he had laboured so long. He took refuge in Turkey where the Sultan gave him generous welcome. His spare time there was used in writing a Turkish grammar which is now used as a school text. From Turkey he went to America in a ship supplied specially for the purpose by the United States. On his way he visited England where he stayed for some time.

Kossuth never enjoyed the popularity which Mazzini and the other leaders of Italian liberation did in England. This is possibly due to the fact that England was directly interested in Italian affairs, while the revolution in Hungary attracted but little attention. Italy was the land of romance, art and beauty. It was to a great extent the cradle of European civilisation. All Europe was naturally interested in her affairs especially England, whose artists and poets prided themselves in deriving their inspiration from the land of Dante and Angelo.

The failure of the Rebellion was only in appearance. After 20 years of military government Austrian statesmen found that the fire kindled by Kossuth would not die. Prometheus can be imprisoned but the spark once ignited continues to burn. In 1867, Hungary was proclaimed an independent kingdom, and Francis Joseph was crowned at Buda Pesth. A responsible ministry was formed under Count Andrássy.

Kossuth lived long enough to witness the triumph of his cause. He lived a retired life in America and died in 1894 at the ripe age of 92.

AMERICA AND THE WAR

BY

THE REV. R. A. HUME, M.A., D.D.

THE avowed purpose of Great Britain in the present awful war is the overthrow for all time of the doctrine of the divine right of the sword, and a guarantee of the security of justice between nation and nation. Because the ideal of America is the same, the sympathy of the great majority of Americans is with the Allies. Can this ideal and this purpose be best promoted by the continued neutrality of the United States or by their entering the war? Considerable knowledge of the utterances of the American Press justifies the conviction that America's service to humanity can be best promoted by continued neutrality. From the very beginning of American agitation for the Hague tribunal to promote arbitration as a substitute for war in the settlement of international differences, the only avowed object has been the establishment, not of peace, but of justice between nations by righteousness, thorough reason and the moral opinion of the world exerted through the good offices of sister nations. Since Austria and Germany would not wait for diplomacy and arbitration to settle the question between Austria and Servia, pathetic as is the present distress in Europe, what Americans most desire is not an early peace, but such a righteous settlement of the basal issue as will result in an enduring peace. For the following reasons the United States should not enter the war. The sinking of the *Palaba*, the *Gulflight*, and the *Lusitania*, over which there is some immediate excitement, is not of any fundamental consideration.

The very great majority of Americans rightly hate all war. One-half of the population is composed of women, ninety-nine per cent. of whom intensely hate the very thought of war. In the world at large it has been assumed that the way for any nation which considered itself injured to get its rights was to go to war. But history clearly shows the more thoughtful Americans that war never decides issues on the score of right. Therefore they will to the end oppose every effort that their country should enter this war.

An evidence that all Americans do not believe in war is that by the law of the land its regular army is very small. The total effective regular American army is less than a hundred thousand men.

The soldier will always be, in some respects, a moral ideal, not because he desires to kill others, but because for his country or some great cause he is ever ready to lay down his own life. Perhaps naturally it is assumed that in most nations most soldiers not only believe in war, but desire it, for war supplies them the opportunity for doing what an army is trained to be ready to do, gives the excitement of opportunity for personal achievement, and ensures honour and promotion to some of those who particularly distinguish themselves. Nevertheless, whatever may be true of many soldiers, at least in America the impression prevails that the highest officers of their army and even the rank-and-file do not desire war, and would enter upon it only as the last resort. One of the greatest of American soldiers, General W. T. Sherman, uttered the trenchant words: "War is hell," which are for ever imbedded in the national heart. The present Chief of Staff of the American Army, General Hugh Scott, has lately twice prevented his country being drawn into war. For some years Mexico has been cursed by a civil war caused by unpatriotic personal jealousies between unworthy leaders. The lives and property of some Americans have been destroyed and of many others have been imperilled. If in any country armed intervention by the United States would be justifiable, it was in the Mexican embroglio. Yet not only President Wilson and his Cabinet, but also General Scott and his Staff have restrained their country from the arbitrament of arms. Take one illustration. The Rio Grand River divides Mexico from the United States. Mexican troops firing near that river, perhaps unintentionally, killed some Americans in American territory. Under such circumstances what would many military leaders have done? General Scott asked and obtained an interview which resulted in Mexican troops being withdrawn to a safe distance, and to an apology for the unintentional wrong. Even the American army probably does not favour being drawn into the European war.

Within the brief duration of the present administration, according to the present writer's impression, the United States has entered into treaties with thirty-five countries though some of

them are small nations, that all differences which may arise between those countries and the United States shall be submitted to arbitration before hostilities could begin. While the probability of war between those lands and America is small, yet the United States is thankful that its location, its power, and its relations to all other countries enables it to lead the world to substitute arbitration for war. Cynicists will aver that this is wholly impossible. But arbitration has displaced fighting in the relations of individuals, small communities and small nations. If America believes that arbitration should at least precede hostilities and is negotiating many treaties embodying this principle, how absurd it would be for that country to go to war against Germany over such incidents as the sinking of the *Lusitania*! Germany does not desire war with America nor America with Germany.

America is a country where the churches contain a very large part of the population and exert great influence over public policy. President Wilson and Secretary Bryan are devout elders in the Presbyterian Church. The clergy and great majority of Church members believe that war, except for extremely grave considerations, is not the Christian way of settling international difficulties.

Even internal considerations will interfere with the United States entering the present war. To a large degree America is composed of an immense number of immigrants from Europe and their descendants. One of the glories of America is that these mixed peoples become citizens who make loyalty to their present country their first consideration. Yet naturally they are also loyal to the countries from which they came. There are many millions of Americans of German descent who approve of neutrality in the present war, who would bitterly resent America's entering into war with their Fatherland. Englishmen who have some realization of the awful bitterness between Ulster and the rest of Ireland could hardly expect the United States to enter upon a course which would certainly develop similar bitterness in her borders.

Very few Englishmen realize what interests America has in Turkey. The fact that every leader of the Ottoman Empire has always known that the United States absolutely and for ever has no desire for a political foothold in Turkey has made it possible for Americans to conduct Christian missions in that empire with far less difficulty than the missionary representatives of other countries. Every French priest in Syria has been

thought as one seeking to promote French interests. From Constantinople to Bagdad every German missionary has (in some cases with due reason) been deemed an emissary of the German empire's effort to secure predominance there. So American missions in the Ottoman Empire far exceed those of all other lands. A score of fine colleges, scores of finely equipped hospitals, numerous schools and industrial institutions connected with American missions are in both European and Asiatic Turkey. Apart from commercial enterprises, on a conservative estimate \$9,000,000 of American money are invested in such religious institutions. Despite the intensity of Mohammedan opposition to Christian effort, in the main the persons and even the property of Americans are tolerably secure so long as America remains neutral.

While remaining neutral America is rendering to humanity in relief to starving Belgium a stupendous service, which would be impossible were the United States to enter the war. Through an American Commission the United States has since November sent to Belgium food and clothing amounting to 668,000 tons, valued at over ten million pounds sterling, and is at present feeding over one and a half millions of destitute people, most of whom would probably otherwise starve to death. Germany allows neutral America to perform this service to humanity, but would instantly disallow it, if America abandoned neutrality.

At the close of this war there will be need of the friendly offices of one or more strong neutral nations to help, in some measurably impartial spirit, in leading the warring nations to the mutual acceptance of terms of peace, which will give some assurance that eternal bitterness shall not remain. The final settlement of the Russo-Japanese war was measurably satisfactory, because in the Peace of Portsmouth the representatives of the United States used their great influence to the acceptance of terms which quieted determination to renew the conflict out of revenge. It is in the interests of lessening the probability of future war that President Wilson, supported by the majority of his countrymen, is trying to have America scrupulously observe official neutrality, though, through the legitimate services of private individuals, the Allies get more aid than Germany and Austria.

At a recent gathering in London, Sir Gilbert Parker, M.P., wisely said: "It is infinitely better for the world's sake and for our own that the United States should not abandon her neutrality."

TRIBUTE TO THE INDIAN ARMY

BY MR. E. ASHMEAD-BARTLETT.

IN the recent successful attack on Neuve Chapelle it is stated that the honours were shared by the 4th Corps and a portion of the Indian Army. The Indian Army has more than proved its excellence and its capacity to fight side by side with our Regular troops. The soldiers of India are, perhaps, the most highly trained in the world. They are nearly all long-service men who know their job thoroughly from A to Z. They are hardy, brave, and full of cheerfulness in the field. The regiments have, with one or two exceptions, almost invariably given a good account of themselves in face of the enemy.

Some of their counter-attacks have been models of dash and skill. They are, in fact, above all else, good in attack. This is generally the case with highly-trained troops. Their behaviour in face of the enemy largely depends on the leading of their white officers. As long as they have had their officers with them they have never turned back or shown signs of demoralisation. Unfortunately, the losses have been very heavy amongst the officers, who cannot be replaced at a moment's notice. One who was present during a recent attack on a village in the fighting round La Bassée for the possession of the Brickfields and railway triangle told me he had seen a mixed battalion make a most gallant charge and capture a village at the point of the bayonet. * *

When they first arrived at the theatre of war they took some little time before they became accustomed to modern artillery fire. Since the Indian Mutiny the Indian Army has never had to face any sort of shell-fire except in the expedition to Peking. All the campaigns in which it has taken part have been against hillmen, who are without this arm.

There is no native Indian artillery, except some mountain mule batteries, and therefore the men were very ignorant of its employment and effects. The native mind could not at first, under these circumstances, appreciate the tremendous and decisive role that artillery fire plays in modern warfare. Probably not as much care had been taken to teach the men what constitutes cover against various forms of shell-fire as in our own army, and they had to learn by actual experience after their arrival at the front.

It can easily be understood what the first impression on the native mind must have been when the white puffs of shrapnel began bursting

over their heads, intermingled with deafening and devastating reports of the high explosive howitzers. Their enemy was invisible. They could not see who was firing at them, nor whence the shells arrived. Under these circumstances it is astonishing how well the Indian troops stood the strain. Quite apart from the shell-fire, the Indians have had to face all through this long and trying winter conditions of warfare to which they were totally unaccustomed. They are essentially an army trained for open order fighting. The Gurkhas, for instance, are hillmen, and adepts at scaling heights or crawling unobserved over broken ground, or making their way through dense forests. They possess an unerring instinct for finding their way.

They are born natural hunters. They delight to stalk an enemy in small groups of a dozen or so, and in this kind of fighting their equals are not to be found in Europe. The whole Indian Army has, in fact, been trained most highly in attack, in those great sweeping forward movements covering a wide stretch of broken country, where the men must show their initiative and their native instinct of keeping direction when marching on a particular objective.

Unfortunately, the theatre of war is about the most unfavourable which could have been found anywhere for the operations of an Indian corps, and for bringing out the finer points of their natural instincts and high training.

The Indian is accustomed to a dry climate and hard, firm ground. The hillmen are accustomed to face bitter but dry cold during the winter, but the men from Central India are not. But what all dislike cordially is the peculiar combination of wet and cold and mud amidst which they have been obliged to sit tight for many months. This has caused a certain amount of depression and discouragement. The life in the trenches, standing for days knee-deep in mud and icy water seeing your parapet continually subsiding and having to be rebuilt exposed at all times to the enemy's snipers, his shell-fire and constant counter-attacks, is enough to try the patience of the most lion-hearted and iron-limbed.

Yet the Indians have faced these conditions without showing signs of demoralisation, and have borne their share of the task of holding the line with a courage and endurance worthy of soldiers of any of the European armies engaged.
—From *The Telegraph*.



THE KAISER AND HIS TWO ELDEST GRANDSONS.

EFFECTS OF THE WAR ON INDIAN TRADE**

BY

PROF. H. STANLEY JEVONS, M.A., F.S.S.

It has been predicted by economists for many years past that the next great European War, if such a catastrophe should occur, particularly if Great Britain were involved, would dislocate trade throughout the world and bring ruin on many thousands in neutral countries even remote from the scene of the War. The present horrible war is of wider extent, and burst upon us more suddenly than was ever thought possible; so it is interesting and satisfactory to find that, whilst the anticipations as regards the trade of neutral countries have been largely realised, lugubrious predictions as to the collapse of the trade and industry in Great Britain have been only very partially justified by events.

The effects of the war upon India have been, broadly speaking, of the same kind as those experienced by neutral countries which had traded largely with the belligerent nations overseas. The economic effects may be briefly summarised as being due to the following classes of causes:—

1. Disturbance of foreign trade due to—
 - (a) Shutting off or failure of demand, completely from enemy countries, largely from our continental allies, and partially from neutral countries owing to financial and commercial disturbance.
 - (b) Failure of supply from enemy countries.
 - (c) Lack of transit facilities—
 - (i) From insecurity of shipping, due chiefly to the exploits of the *Emden*.
 - (ii) Through the tonnage available for export trade being reduced by requisitioning of ships as transports.

(d) Prohibition of export of certain goods both from India and from the United Kingdom.

2. Disturbance of exchange.
3. Loss of confidence amongst Indian financiers and the public.
 1. The mobilization and supply of troops.
 5. The curtailment of European supplies of wheat.

It may assist our comprehension of the complexities of foreign trade if we think of the trade between countries as flowing in a number of streams across the oceans, or over the land frontiers. There are two sets of these streams—those flowing inward from various countries to India called imports, and the streams of goods flowing outwards to different countries called exports. We must think of the streams from certain countries to India, as running broad or thick, and others thin; and some of the streams of exports to certain countries being much greater than others. Every stream is, of course, composite, being made up of a multitude of consignments of goods of the most various kinds.

The relative magnitude of the streams of exports to different countries must be gauged by the money value of the goods, not by their quantities, as the goods are measured in so many different units. The following table, taken from the official statistics, gives the values of exports to each country during the last two fiscal years, ending March 31, 1913 and 1914 respectively. They illustrate the character of the Indian export trade in the period just preceding the war, though it has to be remembered that it was a time of booming trade and high prices.

* Prepared as a lecture for the University of Allahabad.

Table of Exports (including re-exports) from British India to the British Empire and Foreign Countries.

Countries.	1912-13.		1913-14.	
	Lakhs of Rs.	Per Cent.	Lakhs of Rs.	Per Cent.
British Empire—				
United Kingdom	61.83	25.1	58.35	23.6
Ceylon	9.18	3.7	9.04	3.7
Straits Settlements	9.19	3.7	6.79	2.8
Hong Kong	9.50	3.9	7.81	3.2
Mauritius, etc.	1.39	.6	1.29	.5
Australia	2.94	1.2	4.10	1.6
Total (including other British Possessions)	1,01.24	41.1	94.42	37.8
Foreign Countries				
Russia	2.03	.8	2.47	1.0
Germany	24.93	10.1	26.42	10.3
Holland	3.73	1.5	4.42	1.8
Belgium	13.17	5.4	12.10	4.9
France	15.78	6.5	17.72	7.1
Italy	6.94	2.8	7.89	3.2
Austria-Hungary	7.28	2.9	10.01	3.9
Turkey	2.54	1.0	3.04	1.2
Persia	1.12	.4	1.41	.6
Java	3.25	1.3	1.95	.8
China (exclusive of Hong Kong)	11.02	4.5	5.72	2.3
Japan	18.73	7.7	22.69	9.2
United States of America	18.88	7.8	21.85	8.9
Total (including other Foreign Countries)	1,44.85	58.9	1,54.49	62.2

For the moment I quote these figures merely to illustrate the nature of our foreign trade; and I want you to observe that for every outward stream of goods there must be inward stream of money making the payments for them, which will be equal to their value, if the latter be rightly estimated. Similarly there is an outward stream of money payments on account of the goods imported. There are debts existing and arising between countries for many other purposes than trade; and it is a fundamental principle of the economics of international trade that over long periods the total payments made outward by a country must balance the total payments inwards, and furthermore that prices and the volume of export and import trade adjust themselves in a remarkable way so as to bring about a balance of payments with the shipment of only so much gold as is actually required for absorption by the country. For instance, if there is a balance of payments inwards there tends to be an accumulation of money in the country, gold being actually

remitted. This usually extends credit, and stimulates trade so that prices rise. This depresses the export trade, and stimulates the import trade. Thus payments outwards are increased relatively to payments inwards, so that the readjustment occurs.

In practice the device of bills of exchange enables all payments due in one direction to be set off against those due in the other, so that bullion is only sent to make up the balances. Gold is never sent both ways at the same time. It is the business of the "exchange banks" to deal in foreign bills of exchange, and the India Office also sells bills, and helps to regulate the exchange, both agencies remitting gold occasionally. The dislocation of the exchanges between the European financial centres and all other parts of the world was one of the first and most serious results of the outbreak of war.

The principle of the "balance of trade," or more properly speaking "of indebtedness," holds good over periods of a year or more in length.

Values of exports of Indian produce to certain countries during the 12 months ending 31st March 1914, are shown in this Table.
(The figures represent 1,000's of Rupees.)

Articles.	United Kingdom.	Germany.	Austria-Hungary.	China.
Barley ...	1,22,64	1,02
Bran and pollards ...	38,07
Bristles and fibres ...	12,78
Coffee ...	55,34	...	7,30	...
Coir and manufactures of ...	28,86	23,92
Cotton, raw ...	1,43,80	6,00,24	2,92,41	33,91
Cotton, twist and yarn ...	1,34	...	12	4,09,78
Cotton manufactures ...	8,07
Drugs, medicines, etc ...	5,66
<i>Dyeing Materials—</i>				
Cutch and Gambier ...	5,21
Indigo ...	6,39	9	3,25	...
Myrobalan ...	21,40
Gram ...	10,37
Hemp, raw (chiefly Sann) ...	44,20	10,41
<i>Hides and Skins—</i>				
Raw ...	47,28	3,18,21	1,86,43	...
Dressed or tanned ...	3,65,20			
Horn and horn-meal ...	5,06
Jute, raw ...	11,73,96	6,74,87	1,97,91	50,77
Jute, gunny bags ...	92,02	17,14	...	
Jute, gunny cloth ...	83,66	13,07	...	
Lac ...	60,08	27,42	4,04	...
Manures ...	11,65	9,58
Metals and ores ...	52,68
Mica ...	27,42
Oils ...	23,33	10,40
<i>Provision & Oilman</i>				
Stores ...	5,86
Pulse ...	42,75
Rice (not in the husk) ...	1,69,45	3,14,41	2,05,50	...
Rubber, raw ...	50,42
Saltpetre ...	5,83
<i>Seeds—</i>			87,04	...
Castor ...	81,65
Cotton ...	2,08,73
Linseed ...	2,47,22	80,56
Rape ...	26,97	97,61
Silk, raw ...	3,84
Spices ...	11,79
Sugar ...	4,61
Tea ...	10,84,81	3,69	...	50,75
Wheat ...	8,54,21
Wood (mainly teak) ...	50,80	21,31
Wool, raw ...	2,43,17
Wool manufactures ...	18,27
Other articles ...	1,78,81	1,56,94	13,48	15,43
Fodder, bran	15,86
Fruits and vegetables	5,92
Seeds, copra or coconut kernel	98,64
Seeds, Mow	46,47
Seeds, Poppy	8,02
Seeds, Til	40,63
Seeds, others	39,12
Piece-goods	91
Grain, pulse and flour	4,48
Opium	4,17
Total ...	57,35,51	26,35,58	9,97,48	5,70,18

but in short periods of time there is usually a considerable excess of payments due one way or the other, due to harvest shipments, and so forth. Any such want of balance must soon correct itself, and usually does so more or less completely within the next six or nine months. The fact is often lost sight of by those who advocate protective tariffs, that the reduction of total value of the import trade must entail a reduction of the export trade nearly as great. The theory of the balance of trade also shows us that the necessary result of the considerable reduction of our export trade which the war has brought about will be a corresponding reduction of the import trade, except in the unlikely contingency of the Government of India or private companies borrowing heavily in London or America, and so importing capital in the form of goods.

The foregoing brief survey of the foreign trade of India may help to make clear what actually happened on the outbreak of war; but before considering the subsequent events and their mutual relationship, I must point out that quite apart from the war we had come to the turn of the tide of trade prosperity. The cycle of trade generally lasts either for seven or ten to eleven years. There was a boom of trade and world-wide collapse of trade in 1900, and a more severe one in 1907. There is every reason to believe that the trade boom of 1913-14 would in any case have been succeeded by a period of declining trade activity, which had just begun to manifest itself in May, June and July. It would be a statistical operation of considerable difficulty to estimate what would probably have been the course of trade had the war not occurred, and so to disentangle the effects actually due to the war, and I have not had time to attempt the task. I am only able, therefore, to describe the actual course of events, many of which were obviously solely or chiefly due to the war, and you must make a mental reservation as to declining trade prosperity being responsible in greater or less degree for many of the events.

When we examine the trade statistics as given in the monthly accounts of foreign sea-borne trade we find how complete was the stoppage of exports to enemy countries. The tremendous effect which this had upon Indian trade is easily accounted for when we realise how considerable was the trade with Germany and Austria in most of our staple raw products, and how completely it disappeared. This is well shown in the following table giving the exports of raw cotton, jute, and hides to Germany and Austria month by month :

Months.	Raw Cotton to Germany.	Raw Jute to Germany.	Raw Hides to Germany and Austria.	Cotton Twist and Yarn to all countries.
1913.				
July ..	64,08	17,49	29,94	78,89
August ...	31,28	35,62	33,70	80,25
September ...	32,54	93,41	25,64	90,63
October...	43,21	86,91	29,93	96,24
November ...	13,62	59,13	17,90	91,34
December ...	41,74	92,74	18,97	62,77
1914.				
January ...	48,45	1,12,64	46,83	83,28
February ...	92,81	76,68	...	84,87
March ...	1,02,29	37,73	63,77	1,04,56
April ...	73,39	65,96	54,13	52,76
May ...	1,15,10	31,57	55,06	1,20,76
June ...	1,18,52	20,62	31,51	59,44
July ...	1,18,38	14,08	30,47	82,63
August ...	28,49	10,83	8,33	34,55
September	18,82
October	10,17
November	66,63
December	33,71
1915.				
January	48,35

I have added the figures of the export of cotton yarn and twist next to cloth, jute and tea, because it is the most important manufactured article of Indian make exported, and because 90 per cent. of it goes to China, and the rest mainly also eastward. Consequently the falling off in shipments of this commodity is due not to a failure of demand caused by the war, but mainly to want of shipping facilities due to insecurity of shipping and scarcity of tonnage, and perhaps partly to decrease of demand from the purely commercial cause of decreasing trade activity which I mentioned earlier. I suppose this yarn is used for weaving in China mainly by hand, and it is interesting to note that India can hold its own against all the world as regards price and quality of the class of yarns required in China.

The failure of supply cannot be so easily illustrated as the articles imported are extremely numerous, and no one of them except cotton piece-goods bulks very large. I have, however, selected some of the most important lines of goods which were formerly imported from Germany and Austria, and have exhibited the quantities imported month by month in the following table :

Months.	Dyes from Germany.	Glass from Austria.	Metals wrought from Germany.	Sugar from Austria.
1913.				
July ...	7,41	8,42	10,56	1,96
August ...	6,55	7,60	7,91	3
September ...	8,36	7,18	11,33	17
October ...	7,09	6,90	8,76	24
November ...	7,00	6,79	13,69	2,72
December ...	5,95	5,78	12,83	11,33
1914.				
January ...	7,33	6,05	13,92	32,10
February ...	6,14	6,97	12,25	21,07
March ...	4,95	5,74	12,66	24,95
April ...	4,98	6,08	16,37	19,22
May ...	5,43	5,86	15,62	17,20
June ...	5,67	5,86	15,02	1,74
July ...	6,91	4,70	15,14	14
August ...	3,37	1,23	8,18	...
September ...	2,44	19	2,55	...
October ...	92	1
November ...	29	1
December ...	17	5	11	...
1915.				
January ...	10	...	9	...

The total effect of all causes upon Indian foreign trade since the outbreak of war is best found by comparing the returns of the total value of foreign trade month by month with the figures of previous years. In the following table I have taken the percentage by which the exports and imports of each month of 1914-15 were in excess of deficiency as compared with the average of the two corresponding months in 1912-13 and 1913-14:

Percentage compared with average of corresponding months of the two (2) previous years.

Months.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Below.	Above.	Below.	Above.
1914.				
June ...	5	14
July	7	6	...
August ...	8	...	44	...
September ...	53	...	58	...
October ...	22	...	52	...
November ...	25	...	15	...
December ...	23	...	28	...
1915.				
January ...	42	...	49	...

It will be seen that exports, which had fallen off a little in July before the war, suffered much more severely than imports in August; that September was the worst month for trade in both directions; that exports as a whole have been reduced by a greater percentage than imports; and that since the recovery of exports in November as the result of the destruction of the *Emden*, there has been again a marked decline.

The war entailed a very severe crisis in the foreign exchanges between practically all countries dependent upon sea transport for communication with one another. The break in the Europe-America exchanges was mainly due to enormous sales of stock exchange securities and transfers of capital consequent upon the war. The result of the inability to send gold from New York to London in the early stages of the war, owing to the presence of German cruisers in the Atlantic, was that exchange rose far above the point at which ordinarily gold would have been sent. For weeks it was quite impossible to remit money from South America to London, or from London to Singapore. The fact that the Indian exchange did not break down in this crisis is a proof of the very great advantage of Government undertaking a purely economic function, when it does so in a thoroughly well considered and whole-hearted manner. The Government of India having already accumulated a substantial gold reserve in London, formally undertook on August 3rd to support exchange by every means in its power. Numerous causes, amongst which were the calling in of capital to Europe, the inability to get payments maturing from belligerent countries, and the refusal of the British and other merchants and manufacturers to export except for cash, led to the balance of payments falling due from India to London, instead of in the opposite direction as is usual, and the Government of India, therefore, proceeded to sell "reverse bills" in India, which are drafts payable in London by the Secretary of State for India from the gold reserve accumulated there. It is important to notice that the last time exchange turned in favour of London, and "reverse bills" had to be sold in India was in 1907-08, at the same time as the collapse of trade already referred to; and it is possible that during the autumn of 1914 declining trade would again have turned the balance in favour of London and that the war only hastened and accentuated what was fundamentally the result of the trade situation.

The loss of confidence, which resulted in some

of the incipient features of a financial crisis, was probably partly of a political character amongst the uneducated classes, who did not understand what was happening, but was mainly economic, due to anticipation of a commercial crisis. It had all the usual features of the latter: financiers suddenly calling in their loans and making no new ones; the withdrawal and hoarding of gold; runs on savings banks; demand for the encashment of notes, and refusal by the ignorant to accept them in the ordinary course of business. The very strong position of the Government in cash reserves and floating balances, together with the sound position of the Presidency and Exchange Banks, saved the situation. The Government acted promptly and efficiently, for it went out of its way to pay instantly and with convenience to holders, all the currency notes presented, and all depositors in the post office savings banks. Confidence was rapidly restored in business circles when it was seen that the Government had great resources and would take promptly and efficiently whatever measures might be necessary to safeguard the stability of the currency and of the big financial institutions.

The hoarding of gold has been in some ways the most instructive economic result of the war in India. The Government had been trying to introduce gold as a circulating medium with the idea that during a crisis of exchange on London some of the gold could be withdrawn from circulation for export. However, when the crisis came all the gold immediately disappeared from circulation and there were heavy withdrawals from reserves. On August 5th, therefore, the Government refused to issue gold to private persons; and from that date onwards the issue would be made only to the Exchange banks for purposes of export. The mere fact of gold being available for export, and of the reserve existing in London, has served amply to maintain the exchange; so that no one in India has suffered by the loss of gold as a circulating medium.

This is one more proof that all the purposes of a medium of exchange and measure of value can be perfectly well served in a country with a stable Government by a purely representative currency consisting only of paper and token coins, so long as the quantity issued is strictly limited to the requirements of trade. My own view is that currency notes should be allowed to remain after the war inconvertible into gold except for *bond-fide* export purposes through recognised institutions or firms when the rate should be Rs. 15 for £1/-; and that the Government should only

issue sovereigns to customers in India at the rate of Rs. 15/3, and bullion at, say Rs. 15/1/6 or whatever may prove to be the cost of importation and distribution to provincial centres. There is no reason why the consumer of gold for ornaments or hoarding should have the cost of importation paid by the State; nor is there any reason, if the demand for consumption could be satisfied, to lock up many crores of rupees worth of gold in the circulation when paper will do equally well. It would be an immense waste of capital that India badly needs for reproductive enterprises. If the Government has a crore of rupees to spare let it be used to import machines and hire them out, or railway material to build new lines, or let it spend the money on building houses for mill operatives, or in any other useful and income bearing way, rather than in providing a medium of circulation which is little, if at all more convenient than paper, and is more costly in wear and tear to keep up.

The rise of the price of wheat is another striking effect of the war; and we have to consider how far the rise was actually due to the war and how far to other causes. The market of wheat is world wide; and in times of peace the considerable fluctuations which occur from year to year in the price of wheat are due to a substantial variation of the grand total of the harvests of all the civilised countries of the world. In recent years fairly accurate crop statistics have been made available for nearly all countries, and these are collected and published by the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome. The Institute's figures show that the world's crops of wheat were as follows:—

	1,000's of Quintals.
(Approximately 100's of tons.)	
1912-13	.. 895,880
1913-14	.. 814,221
Decrease	.. 81,659

No figures being available for the 1914 crop of France and Belgium, they are omitted for 1912-13 also. Including them would probably intensify the percentage decrease; but as it is, if we reckon the wheat harvest per head of population in each of the two years, there is a decrease of over 10 per cent. This is sufficiently serious in itself to cause a considerable rise of the price of wheat throughout the world. There are, however, two further factors in the present situation: first, a particularly short harvest just reaped for the crop year 1914-15 in the Southern Hemisphere, and secondly, the effects of the war.

The Australian harvest is, through drought, less than one-third of normal, and Australia instead of exporting must be a buyer in the world's market. The harvests are also somewhat short in New Zealand and South America, so that practically no contribution whatever to the requirements of the Northern Hemisphere will come from the Southern Hemisphere during the first half of the present year, when Europe and America are waiting for what promises to be a pretty good harvest reaped over an increased area. The war has added its effect by very appreciably reducing the quantity of 1914 wheat available in the grain markets. Through want of shipping much wheat from distant countries either failed to reach the European markets at all, or could be brought only when the price had risen because of the high freight rates caused by the withdrawal of shipping for transport purposes. The war has also caused some actual destruction of wheat both on land and sea; but its most serious influence has been by the closing of the Dardanelles, whereby probably about 20,000 quintals of the Russian spring crop, included in the harvest figure for 1913-14 above quoted, and which would, but for the war, have come into the West European market, has been held up, and is even now lying in the Black Sea Ports awaiting shipment.

Postscript.—The important announcement of the Government of India's policy in regard to the export of wheat having been made after the foregoing lecture was delivered, I would like to take the opportunity of adding a few words in regard to it. I understand that the Government's policy will be so to regulate their purchases that the price of wheat in India may be allowed to decline gradually. The Indian price will be kept substantially below the world price, but yet at a level which will be distinctly above the average for the time of year, and will give the cultivator a handsome return, whilst easing the situation for the consumer. The profits which are likely to accrue are to be used in a special manner—I trust in some way which will be of permanent benefit in the development of agriculture. The policy is bold and masterly, and if competently carried through appears to me likely to attain the economic ideal of distributing the benefit of Nature's bounty as evenly as possible between all concerned. I consider the plan superior to an export duty on a sliding scale which was the best alternative. It would be well if the Government were to publish at an early date the figures for a series of future months of the maximum prices at which it will purchase for export. This would tend to get existing stocks, and the new harvest, on the market as quickly as possible.

INDUSTRIAL INDIA

BY MR. GLYN BARLOW, M.A.

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A RALLYING SONG

BY MR. STANLEY P. RICE, I.C.S.

ENGLAND.

I. White foam of breakers beating on the strand
Where the dark cliffs shelter the sea-bird's nest :
Low plash of rippling waves upon the sand,
Lulling the idle and the tired to rest :
Where amid storm and fog the headlands peer
Keeping their ceaseless vigil over the sea :—

Veiled though she be,
She whom we love with a passionate love is here.
Mother, O mother, thy sons lie scattered and

dead :
Shalt thou sit weeping, stripped of thy glory
[and pride,
Weeping, forlorn, with shame having covered thy
[head,
That there are left to thee none like those who
[have died ?

II. These be thy sons : upon a foreign shore.
They yielded up their lives in fealty,
Red harvests gathered by the scythe of war,
Sea fruit of the insatiable sea,
Dead hands that beckon with a spirit sign,
Bidding their countrymen put forth their strength
That so at length

Triumphant on thy brow the crown may shine.
Come from the winds, O breath, from the four
[winds come :
Breathe on the slain, O spirit, that they may
[live
Live once again and linger around that home
For which they have given their lives and
[again would give.

III. Awake, awake, put on thy strength once more:
Be of good cheer, O mother, for there yet
Beats the full heart from shore to distant shore
That loves thee always and will not forget.
Gird on thy sword : from factory, town and lea
The word goes forth, and higher still and higher
Rises the sacred fire

To fight for life, for freedom and for thee.
From the seas of the South they gather together
[for strife :

From the burning East they come, from the
[snows of the West
Thy children are welcoming death to give thee
[life,
To avenge the desolate lands and to free the
[oppressed.

INDIA.

IV. Beneath the kindly sunshine and the rain
The rice-fields smile and yield their rich reward :
Living content beside the garnered grain,
The peasant dreams : unmindful of the sword
The busy city hums : with conch and gong
The temples half revealed by glow-worm lights,
Perform their mystic rites

While to the gods they chant their ancient song,
They hear not the thunderous sound of the battle's
[guns

They heed not the peril, because they know not
[the time
Of the visitation of death, though brethren and
[sons
Slay and are slain for their sake in an alien
[climate.

V. I look into the darkness and I see
Gaunt shapes of ruined temples dimly rise,
And fields despoiled of all their husbandry,
Pleading for justice to the unheeding skies.
Thine is the fault : be thine the undying shame,
For that thou lookedst on in carelessness
Nor sawest the distress

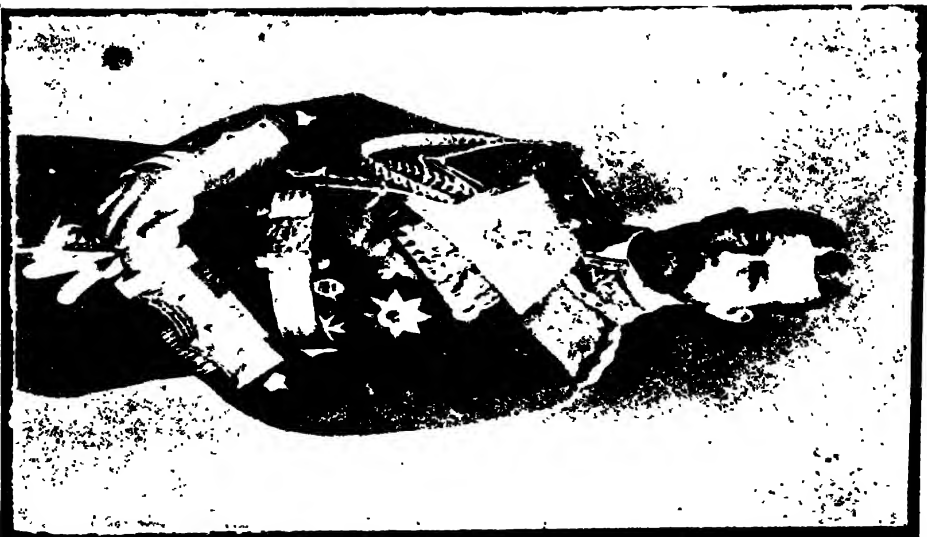
Of those that called aloud upon thy name.
By Rama's renown and Lakshmana's steadfast
[faith,
By the bow that Arjuna drew and Bhima's
[might,
By the song that the Master sang at the battle of
[death,
Put on thine armour and help to defend the
[right.

VI. I look into the twilight and one star,
The star of hope, shines through the tremu-
[lous dawn :
Peace follows hard upon the heels of war,
Bringing large promise of a glorious morn.
The temple bells still ring : the fields are white
To harvest. While the flag that joins the world
Is yet unfurled

Stretch out thine hand, put on thine armour,
[fight.
The trumpet sounds and bids thee awake from
[thy dreams :
The voice of the mountains calls from their
[forests and snow,
O ancient Mother, the voice of thy sacred streams
Calls, bidding thee rise from thy sleep and
[shatter the foe.



GENERAL VON NDENBURG



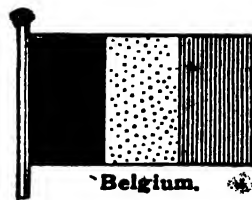
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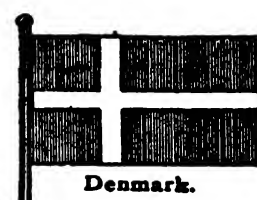
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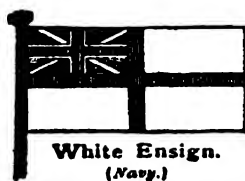
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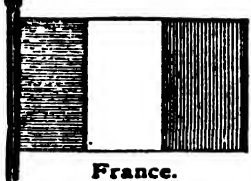
Belgium.



Denmark.



White Ensign.
(Navy.)



France.



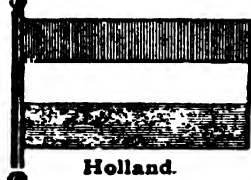
Germany.



Greece.



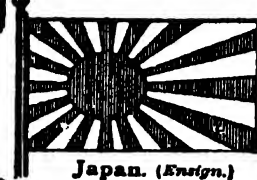
Red Ensign.
(Merchant Service.)



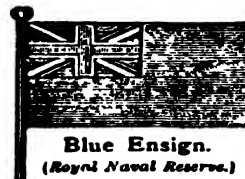
Holland.



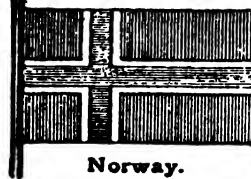
Italy.



Japan. (Ensign.)



Blue Ensign.
(Royal Naval Reserve.)



Norway.



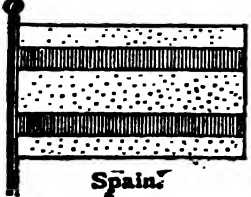
Portugal.



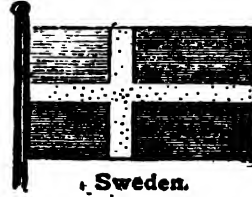
Russia.



United States.



Spain.



Sweden.




Turkey.

NATIONAL FLAGS.

The Neutral States of South-Eastern Europe

GREECE, RUMANIA, AND BULGARIA.

BY REV. E. M. MACPHAIL, M.A., B.D.

S the attitude which Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria have adopted, and still more the attitude which they may adopt in the near future, with regard to the Great War, is naturally attracting much attention at present, a short sketch of the history of these three states may be of interest. They are all in their present form the outcome of the development of the spirit of nationality, the growth of which was such a marked characteristic of the nineteenth century, and which, along with Turkish misrule, has been the chief cause of the break-up of the Ottoman Empire in Europe.

Greece was the first of these little kingdoms to achieve independence. For more than three centuries it had been under Turkish domination, for soon after the fall of Constantinople in 1453 Muhammad II. effected its conquest. In the end of the seventeenth century when the Austrians drove the Turks out of Hungary across the Danube, their allies the Venetians succeeded in conquering the Morea and Attica, but they were unable to retain their conquests, and a century passed before the liberation of Greece took place. Curiously enough it was in Rumania that the revolt began. Moldavia and Wallachia had long been governed by Greek governors sent from Constantinople, and Ypsilanti, the son of a former governor of Moldavia, raised the standard of revolt at Jassy in 1821. The Rumanians, however, did not like the Greeks, and the Turks easily suppressed the rising. In Greece itself they were less successful. All through the Peloponnesus, or the Morea as it is now called, and in many of the islands risings took place, and Ali Pasha of Janina though a Muhammadan sided with the Greeks. In spite of massacres of the usual type the Turks were unable to suppress the revolt and had at last to call in the army of Mahomet Ali, the ruler of Egypt, to assist them. Athens was taken, the Morea was being conquered and ravaged, and it looked as if the Greek cause were hopeless. But much sympathy for the Greeks had been evoked in Western Europe, and though the Holy Alliance looked with disfavour on all national movements, the Czar Alexander I. began to take a friendly interest in them. Alexander died in 1825 and was succeeded by Nicholas I.,

whose interest soon took an active form. Canning, who was now Prime Minister in Britain, also favoured the Greeks, and an agreement was come to between Britain and Russia that Greece should be made into a tributary state. France joined the Alliance and by the Treaty of London made in 1827, a short time before Canning's death, it was agreed that the three Powers should insist that the war should cease at once, and that if the Porte did not agree soon to their proposals Greece should be made altogether independent. The three Powers sent their fleets to Navarino where the Egyptian fleet was lying, and called on Ibrahim Pasha to cease hostilities. One of the Egyptian ships fired, with the result that an engagement took place, and the Egyptian fleet was destroyed. The new British ministry regretted this as "an untoward event," but Nicholas proceeded to declare war by himself. The Turks were defeated and by the Treaty of Adrianople in 1829 the Porte agreed to recognise the independence of Greece. A Conference in London in 1830 settled the boundaries of the new state. It was decided that it should be a constitutional monarchy and in 1833 Prince Otho of Bavaria became king of the Hellenes.

King Otho did not prove to be a great success as a monarch. A revolt took place in 1862 and he was deposed. A new king was found in the person of Prince George, the second son of the King of Denmark and the brother of Queen Alexandra. He became king in 1863 and was murdered two years ago in Salonika shortly after the war. Soon after his accession Britain handed over to Greece the Ionian Islands over which she had exercised a protectorate since 1815. Greece was not satisfied with the amount of territory given to her in 1830, but during the Crimean War the Allies compelled her to keep quiet. When the Russo-Turkish War broke out in 1877, however, Greece joined the enemies of Turkey. The Powers at the Congress of Berlin recommended the Porte to rectify the boundaries of Greece and in 1881 she received most of Thessaly. In 1897 she again went to war with Turkey. On this occasion Crete was the cause of the war. Crete which was conquered by Turkey in 1668 is inhabited

chiefly by Greeks who wished to be united to Greece. Constant risings against the Turks took place in the course of the nineteenth century. Greece also desired the union and when in 1896 the Cretans again revolted Greece intervened to assist them. In the war of 1897 the Greeks were completely defeated by the Turks, and had to cede some territory and pay an indemnity. Crete, however, was made into an autonomous state under the protection of Great Britain, France, and Russia, with Prince George of Greece as High Commissioner.

Rumania was the next of the three neutral kingdoms to gain independence. Though later of gaining it than Greece, Rumania as a matter of fact never had come so completely under the control of the Turks as the rest of the Balkan Peninsula. Rumania is composed of the old Danubian Principalities, Moldavia and Wallachia and coincides to a considerable extent with the old Roman province of Dacia which Trajan added to the Empire in 106 A.D. The Rumanians claim to be a Latin people, the descendants of the old settlers of Dacia, and their language is certainly a Romance language though considerably modified by Slavonic influences. There has been a good deal of controversy as to whether the Vlachs or Wallachs are now really Latins, for their country was for centuries swept by countless hordes of invaders of different races. The more one investigates the question of race, the more one becomes convinced that purity of race is largely a fiction, at all events in countries that have experienced successive waves of invasion or migration. Persistence of language seems, however, to argue for the persistence of a race, and in all probability the Rumanians are as much entitled to be regarded as Latins as are many Italians, and are as much Latin in blood as many of the continental Greeks are Greek. Many of the Daco-Romans found shelter in the Carpathians, and when the force of the invading hordes of Slavs and Mongols was spent descended from the mountains as did the remnants of the Visigothic-Romans in Spain. In religion the Rumanians belong for the most part to the Orthodox, Greek Church.

The two Principalities came into existence about the end of the thirteenth century after the wave of Tartar invasion had receded. A Rumanian chief, named Rudolf the Black, came down from the Carpathians and established himself in Wallachia about 1290, and a few years later a Rumanian colony from Transylvania, headed by one Dragoche, settled farther north in Moldavia.

In the course of the fourteenth century Wallachia became tributary to the Turks, but was allowed to retain its local independence. Moldavia being farther off remained independent till after the fall of Constantinople when it, too, had to acknowledge the Sultan as its suzerain. For a time it continued to enjoy practical independence but internal dissensions played into the hands of the Turks, and concessions were made by princes who wished to obtain the favour of the Sultan. John the Terrible, who became Prince of Moldavia in 1572, revolted against the Turks but was ultimately defeated and slain. His later contemporary Michael the Brave, who became Prince of Wallachia in 1593, was for a time successful in creating a "Great Rumania," for he brought under his sway Transylvania and Moldavia. The Rumanian spirit of nationality, however, was not yet strongly developed, and the Hungarian nobles hated him. Moldavia revolted; he lost Transylvania, and while trying to reconquer it was treacherously murdered.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the condition of the Rumanians was very miserable. This was due partly to the bad system of government and partly to the wars caused by the ambition of Austria and Russia. The Princes or Hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia were appointed by the Sultan and were constantly changed. Until the revolt of Greece took place, the administration of Ottoman affairs was largely entrusted to the Phanariots—the Greeks who inhabited the Phanar quarter of Constantinople. Their influence became very great in the Principalities. All appointments implied intrigues and the payment of large sums to the Phanariots and the Porte, and the Hospodars recouped themselves for their expenditure at the expense of their subjects. The native nobles or *boyards* of course raised the national cry of "Rumania for the Rumanians," which in their mouths meant that they ought to be given offices and the opportunities for plunder which office meant to them, but the Phanariots continued to increase in power, and from 1716 to 1821 the Hospodars were always Phanariots.

When Russia began to appear above the horizon as a great power the Rumanians turned to her for help. In the Turkish war of 1711 Peter the Great entered the Principalities. He failed ignominiously to achieve anything against Turkey but his successors were more fortunate. It seemed for a time as if Russia under Catherine II. were going to annex the Principalities but Austrian jealousy prevented this from happening. The

Treaty of Kutchuk-Kaindardji in 1774, however, gave Russia an informal protectorate over the Principalities while it secured various privileges for their inhabitants. By way of compensation Austria in 1774 obtained Bukowina, the north-eastern corner of Moldavia, from the Sultan. In 1802 Russia increased her influence by making the Sultan agree that the Hospodars should not be removed without the consent of the Czar, and in 1812 obtained the part of Moldavia between the Pruth and the Dniester known as Bessarabia. This annexation was a great grief to the Rumanians and their experiences during the frequent occupations of their territories by Russian armies made them feel by no means anxious to become subjects of the Czar.

The revolt of Greece and the Treaty of Adrianople brought much relief to the unfortunate Rumanians. Henceforward they were to be ruled by native Hospodars who were to be appointed for life. They were to have complete internal independence and merely pay a fixed tribute to the Porte. On the other hand Rumania had become practically a Russian protectorate. In spite of this, however, Rumania now began to prosper and a genuine national feeling began to grow, largely under the influence of French ideas. The vision of a great Rumania, in which the Rumanians of Transylvania, Bukowina and Bessarabia should be united with Moldavia and Wallachia, began to appear—a vision which may have important consequences in the not far distant future. But two wars were still needed to unite and free completely the two Principalities. When war broke out between Russia and Turkey in 1853, Russia occupied the Danubian Principalities. This in due course led to the Crimean War. When that war was ended by the Treaty of Paris in 1856 the Russian Protectorate over them was abolished, part of Bessarabia was restored to Moldavia, and the two Principalities were to be allowed in future to have separate, independent, national administrations. Great Britain and France had wished that they should be united into a single state but Austria and Turkey would not permit this. But Moldavia and Wallachia took the matter into their own hands and solved the problem in 1859 by each of them electing Colonel Alexander Couza as their Prince. In November of the same year the united Principalities took the name of Rumania.

In 1866 Prince Couza was deposed and Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen—a cousin

of the Royal family of Prussia—was elected. He reigned till his death in the autumn of last year when he was succeeded by his nephew Ferdinand. Under his rule Rumania prospered and succeeded in acquiring complete independence. In the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 the Rumanian army joined the Russians and gained great glory for itself at the siege of Plevna. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 Rumania was declared to be independent of Turkey and in 1881 its ruler assumed the title of king. At the same time, however, Russia made a grave diplomatic mistake. She insisted at Berlin that Bessarabia should be restored to her and that Rumania should take in exchange the territory at the mouth of the Danube known as the Dobrudza, chiefly inhabited by Bulgarians. The Rumanians bitterly resented this renewed dismemberment of their country, and all the more that it naturally seemed a strange return for the important services their army had rendered. It is no wonder that this has been remembered by the Rumanians and has cooled any feelings of gratitude towards Russia that otherwise they might have felt.

While Rumania has thus been playing a prominent part in the political movements and intrigues as well as in the wars of south-eastern Europe for the last two hundred years, very different has been the case with Bulgaria, though that country occupied a much more distinguished position than Rumania did in the middle ages. Europe indeed knew little and cared less about Bulgaria and the Bulgarians until it was startled in the summer of 1876 by the gruesome accounts of "the Bulgarian atrocities." And yet at one time Bulgaria had been the leading power in the Balkan Peninsula and the Bulgarians had been the dread of the Eastern Empire. The modern Bulgarians are essentially a Slavonic people speaking a Slavonic language. In the fifth or sixth century A.D., the Serbs, or as we call them the Slavs, crossed the Danube and penetrated into the Eastern Empire. Some of them settled in the country south of the Danube now known as Bulgaria, while others went westwards and settled between the Danube and the Adriatic. These latter were the ancestors of the people who live now-a-days in Serbia and Montenegro as well as in Bosnia, Herzegovina, Dalmatia, Slavonia, Croatia, and other parts of Austria-Hungary. The eastern Slavs who inhabited the old Roman province of Moesia were conquered by a Finno-Ugrian race called the Bulgars, but they succeeded in assimilating their conquerors though they

kept the Bulgarian name. In the ninth century they were Christianised by two brothers Cyril and Methodius. Cyril invented for them the adaptation of the Greek alphabet which is used in Russia and throughout most of the Balkan states, and which in honour of its inventor is called the Cyrillic alphabet. In the tenth century the Bulgarian Czars ruled over most of the Balkan Peninsula. In 1018 the Emperor Basil II. destroyed the Bulgarian Empire which had then reached the height of its power under its Czar Samuel. Basil in honour of his victories was called Boulgaroktonos, i.e., the slayer of Bulgars. For a hundred and eighty years the Bulgarians were under the domination of the Greek Empire but in 1186 a popular rising under one John Asen led to the revival of the Bulgarian power, and the Czar John Asen II, who reigned at Tirnovo from 1218 to 1241, made Bulgaria once again the greatest power in south-eastern-Europe. His rule was one of prosperity for Bulgaria. He included in his dominions most of the Balkan Peninsula and he made the Church of Bulgaria independent of that of Constantinople, with a Patriarch of its own. With his death the glory of Bulgaria came to an end, and Serbia took the leading place. Early in the fourteenth century King Stephen of Serbia made Bulgaria a vassal state. The hostility of the two Slav states toward one another, and the dislike both of them felt towards the Greeks, prepared the way for the easy conquest of the Balkan Peninsula by the Turks. In 1389 the Serbian power was shattered by Murad II. on the fatal field of Kossovo. In 1390 Tirnovo was taken and sacked by the Turks, and for nearly five hundred years Bulgaria disappeared from the map of Europe.

During this period Bulgaria suffered a good deal at the hands of the Greek clergy as well as at those of Turkish pashas, and the Turks seeing in the Bulgarian dislike of the Greeks an opportunity of carrying out their favoured principle of government "Divide and Rule" ultimately allowed the Bulgarians to have an ecclesiastical organisation of their own with an Exarch at Constantinople independent of the Greek Patriarch. Thus nowadays religious differences help to separate Bulgarians from Greeks.

The "Bulgarian atrocities," to which reference has already been made, were the result of the quickening of national life caused by the insurrection in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1875. That rising led to restlessness among the Slav

populations in Turkey. The atrocities were the work chiefly of irregular Turkish troops who were sent to Bulgaria to keep it quiet. They succeeded in extirpating a number of Bulgarians but it was a fatal success for Turkey. In 1876 Serbia declared war against Turkey and when she was defeated the European Powers intervened. Anxious though Great Britain had been to protect Turkey from Russia, she could not in the face of the Bulgarian horrors do much, and when Russia declared war against Turkey in 1877 and was joined by Greece, Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania, Turkey found herself without an ally. In the war itself Bulgaria took no part except that it was the scene of the most serious fighting between Turkey and Russia. When at last in the beginning of 1878 the victorious Russians were within sight of Constantinople the Treaty of San Stefano was made. According to it a great autonomous principality of Bulgaria was to be created, extending from the Black Sea to the Aegean and including most of Macedonia. Lord Beaconsfield insisted that the terms of this Treaty should be considered by the European Powers and to this Russia at last agreed. The Congress which met at Berlin largely modified the terms of peace. Bulgaria was divided, and only the part lying between the Danube and the Balkans was to be constituted an autonomous state while southern Bulgaria, known as Eastern Roumelia, and Macedonia were separated from it, and remained under Turkish rule. Bulgaria thus became a principality and Prince Alexander of Battenberg, a German prince of the House of Hesse, was made its first ruler. At first Bulgaria and its Prince were completely under Russian influence, but gradually Bulgaria began to find that it too had a national feeling, and Alexander fell under the displeasure of the Czar. In 1885 a movement suddenly took place in Eastern Roumelia which declared itself to be united with Bulgaria. In spite of opposition from interested quarters, the union was carried out, but as a result Serbia declared war against Bulgaria. To the surprise of Europe Serbia was beaten, and Austria which at that period posed as the patron of Serbia had to intervene. Shortly after this victory, in August 1886, Prince Alexander was kidnapped and carried off to Russia by the pro-Russian party, but Stambuloff, the great Bulgarian statesman, secured the control of the government and invited Alexander to return. The Prince did so but at the same time foolishly offered to abdicate if the Czar wished it. The Czar did wish it, and

he had to go. All this naturally created a strong anti-Russian feeling in Bulgaria. Stambuloff and his fellow-nationalists now had to look out for another prince. Their choice fell on young Prince Ferdinand of the Saxe-Coburg-Gotha family who accepted the invitation in August 1887. Russia refused to recognise Ferdinand for eight years but at last did so. Before that happened, however, Stambuloff fell under the displeasure of Ferdinand and was driven from power. Shortly afterwards he was murdered in the streets of Sofia, and his murderers were left unpunished. In 1908 when the revolution took place in Turkey, Bulgaria declared herself independent and Ferdinand assumed the title of Czar of Bulgaria.

During the last thirty years, Macedonia, the Turkish province, lying between Greece, Serbia and Bulgaria, has been the chief storm-centre of Eastern Europe. In addition to Turks Macedonia contains Greeks, Serbians, Bulgarians and Vlachs or Rumanians. Each of the three countries bordering on it coveted it and was jealous of its neighbours in consequence. The Sultan Abdul Hamid was most successful in playing off the Balkan powers one against the other with the most disastrous results so far as Macedonia was concerned. When the Young Turks came into power in 1908, it was hoped that they might put an end to the anarchy in Macedonia, but it soon became apparent that their one idea of ruling was to turn all the different races in Turkey, whether Christian or Muhammadan, into Turks. They thus succeeded in making all of them, Muhammadan Albanians and Arabs as well as Greeks, Serbs, Bulgarians and Vlachs, hostile to their regime. The result was a hitherto unknown drawing together of the usually hostile Balkan states. An alliance was formed between Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro and in the autumn of 1912 war broke out between these states and Turkey. Greece had shown up so badly in 1897 that it was not expected she would distinguish herself, and there is good reason for believing that the Germanic powers permitted the war because they expected that the Turkish army now reorganised and armed by Germany would easily defeat its enemies. The opposite proved to be the case. The Greeks, the Serbians, and the Bulgarians all defeated the Turkish troops opposed to them. The Bulgarian army advanced to within a short distance of Constantinople, and the Turks sued for peace.

Before the war broke out the Great Powers to

try to prevent it had told the three Allies that they would not be allowed to disturb the territorial *status quo*. The Allies had persisted in spite of this warning and now that Turkey had collapsed, the Powers found it to be impossible to carry out their threat. The re-arrangement of the map, however, was a very delicate matter for two reasons. First, the Allies had been much more successful than they had expected to be, and the arrangements as to the distribution of territory made before the war had to be modified. Second, some of the Great Powers had their own plans and ambitions which they did not wish to see thwarted. Austria and Italy, for example, had decided views of their own upon certain points, especially with regard to the seaboard of the Adriatic. Neither Serbia, Montenegro nor Greece, they maintained, must be allowed to encroach upon Albania, which must be created into a separate independent state. Austria-Hungary also was determined to do all she could to prevent Serbia from becoming a strong power and thus blocking her way to the Aegean, and there is now practically no doubt that when she saw that her way to the Aegean was being closed by the territorial acquisitions of Serbia she encouraged Bulgaria to attack her Allies, Serbia, and Greece.

According to the arrangement made between the Allies Bulgaria was to have received a large acquisition of territory but now she claimed a great deal more than they were willing to give. She wished to have practically the whole of the Aegean coast including Salonika which Greece had conquered. Suddenly in the early summer of 1913 the Bulgarian armies without warning attacked those of her former Allies. "Pride goeth before destruction," and so it proved in the case of Bulgaria. Greece and Serbia proved more than a match for her, and her neighbours Rumania and Turkey took advantage of her distress. The Turks stole back to Adrianople in spite of the treaty which had just been signed ceding it to Bulgaria. Rumania moved her troops into Bulgaria, and announced that they would march on Sofia unless Bulgaria ceded some territory on the Danube including the strong fortress of Silistria. Bulgaria was brought to her knees, and by the Treaty of Bucharest she lost not merely the additional territory she had coveted but also much of what would otherwise have been hers as well as some of her original territory. By the treaties which ended the two Balkan wars the territory of

Greece has been much increased. A large part of Macedonia including the coveted seaport of Salonika has fallen to her share, and she has gained also Crete and a number of other islands,—how many had not been finally settled when the Great War broke out. She was prevented however from taking a part of Albania which she claims to be Greek, just as Montenegro in the north was prevented from retaining Scutari. The Albanians are neither Slavs nor Greeks but are a race by themselves being probably akin to the ancient Illyrians. They number about a million and a half and have a language of their own. Some of them are Christians, others are Muhammadans, and they are all an independent if somewhat lawless race. Albania, it was arranged, was to be a separate state with a Prince of its own and consequently in the name of the principle of nationality the Greeks and Montenegrins were warned off by the Powers. It will be remembered that a German princeling William of Wied was for a short time its ruler with the title of Mpret, but he has left his dominions and is said to have sought a quieter haven in the German army. Meantime to restore order, Greece has temporarily re-occupied part of southern Albania, while Italian troops are taking care of Valona.

It cannot be said that the Treaty of Bucharest is likely to be a permanent settlement of the Balkan question. It has placed Bulgarian populations under Greece, Serbia and Rumania, and Bulgaria is certain to try to upset it sooner or later. If she is wise she will seek to come to an understanding with her former Allies and with Rumania, and to settle things in a peaceful manner. If, as seems probable, Austria-Hungary will after the war have to give Serbia and Rumania part of the Hapsburg lands inhabited by Serbs and Rumanians, these two countries might quite well be expected to restore to Bulgaria what are really Bulgarian lands. The trouble with regard to nationality in the Balkans is that the different states—like the American lady in Laurence Oliphant's story who always felt so democratic to those above her—feel the principle of nationality very keenly only when they are claiming for themselves lands inhabited by people of

their own race. When unfortunately a population on coveted territory is an alien one, then the principle of nationality gives place to that of territoriality, and too often this has led to the "removal" of the aliens. Bulgaria is doubtless at present closely watching the course of events. She must be swayed by conflicting motives—hatred of Rumania and her late Allies, gratitude to Russia and yet fear of her, dislike of Turkey, fear of Austria-Hungary. Weakened by two wars and conscious of the fact that Austro-German domination in the Balkan Peninsula would mean ultimate ruin for the nationalities there she will probably sacrifice her revengeful feelings to her manifest self-interest and seek by remaining neutral to gain some reward when peace is made.

It is said indeed that in all three countries the people are strongly in favour of joining the Allies and that they are being held back by their Governments. It is not surprising that the Governments of Greece and Bulgaria, countries which have just passed through two exhausting wars, should seek to maintain their neutrality. It is difficult to see how Rumania can continue to do so. In the recent Balkan struggle she took no part till towards the end when without fighting she secured a large slice of territory. But circumstances are different now, and if Rumania does not come in as a combatant she may find that her territorial ambitions will receive no recognition. I have already indicated what these ambitions are. In Transylvania, Bukowina, and Bessarabia there are millions of Rumanians and the Rumanian patriots dream of a Great Rumania containing over eleven million inhabitants and uniting under a national government all these scattered fragments of the Rumanian race. Only with the help of Russia can this dream be even partially realised, and it will be surprising if in the course of the next few months Rumania does not seek to gain the freedom of her compatriots in Transylvania who have so long been suffering from the domination of the Hungarians, and if she is not found ranging herself on the side of the Allies in the great European struggle for the freedom of nationalities and of nations.

BARODA.

THE State of Baroda is divided into four separate blocks quite apart from one another, but there are several detached bits of territory belonging to Baroda, which are so interlaced with British territory that it is only possible to realise their extent and position with a detailed map. The city of Baroda is familiarly known as Wadadara and early English travellers and merchants referred to it as Brodera from which Baroda is said to be derived. The territories of the State lie in Guzerat and Kathiawar. The Guzerat portion is divided into three great divisions or *prants*, as the Kodi prant to the north, the Baroda prant with the capital city in the centre and the Navsari prant to the south. The Kathiawar portion is called the Amreli prant. The total area is 8,182 sq. miles, Kodi being 3,015, Baroda 1,887, Navsari, 1,952, and Amreli 1,245 sq. miles or thereabouts and the population about two millions.

Administration.—The administration of Baroda is based on British Indian models so far as the various departments are concerned, and His Highness rules on constitutional lines with an Executive Council, formed of the principal officers of the State, and a Dewan. His Highness, like the Nizam, has power to act on his own initiative should occasion require it. The present Dewan is Mr. V. P. Madhava Rao, C.I.E., formerly Dewan of Travancore and Dewan of Mysore. The restoration of village authority is being tried in Baroda as in parts of British India, and some attempt at social self-Government is being made. There is a Legislative Department and a Legislative Council, elected and nominated. There is also a High Court. The Gaekwar has reserved to himself the right of disposing of final appeals in certain cases with the advice of the Huzur Nyaya Sabha. A Public Works, Revenue, Medical and many other Departments are well officered and controlled.

The Military Force of the Baroda State is a small one, there being about 5,000 regulars, Artillery included, and about 4,000 irregulars.

Education.—There is Director of Public Instruction and a College at Baroda affiliated to the Bombay University. Liberal expenditure is incurred on education and there are special technical schools. Peripatetic teachers and libraries spread education in the rural parts and the Gaekwar is anxious to introduce compulsory education. With Travancore and Cochin, Baroda places education

in the forefront of its administrative boons to the people.

Finance.—For the last official year the income of the State from all sources amounted to 221 lakhs and the expenditure to 180. There is a substantial reserve balance. The land yields the largest revenue, unlike Travancore where the income from excise and miscellaneous revenue is the largest item. The Gaekwar of Baroda is said to be one of the wealthiest of Indian Princes. British Currency and the British Post serve the State.

History.—The modern history of Baroda dates from the decline of the Mogul Empire. The Mahrattas first invaded Gujerat in 1705. Seven years later, Khande Rao Dabbhade became a powerful chieftain and levied a one quarter tax on travellers' goods. Subsequently he was in 1716 made Senâpathi or Commander-in-Chief, and in 1720 the Mogul Emperor granted to him the right of levying *chauth* or quarter of the revenues. In Gujerat one of his famous officers was Damaji Gaekwar who obtained the title of *Shamsheer Bahadur* (Illustrious swordsman) which the Gaekwars bear even now. Pilaji Gaekwar, nephew of Damaji Gaekwar, was the founder of the present ruling family, who removed his headquarters to Songarh, the cradle of the Gaekwar's house and where it remained till 1766. Pilaji Gaekwar invaded and exacted tribute from the Surat *althavisi*. Pilaji's fortunes fluctuated till the Peshwa's forces defeated the Senâpathi's army supported by the Gaekwar at Bhilapur. The Peshwa, Baji Rao, later on nominated Pilaji as *mutalik* of the new Senâpathi Jeswant Rao Dabbhade, in succession to Trimbak Rao, slain in battle. The title of Sena Khas Khel (Leader of the Sovereign Band) was conferred on him, but he was assassinated in 1732 by the agents of Abhai Singh, Rajah of Jodhpur. Damaji, the son of Pilaji, succeeded him and after many raids, battles and struggles, Damaji offered to come to terms with the Peshwa with whom he had fallen out and under false pretences Damaji was seized and imprisoned in Poona, the Peshwa making great efforts to wrest Gujerat from the Mogul and the Gaekwar's party. Failing in these attempts, the Peshwa entered into an agreement with Damaji, by which Damaji ceded half of Gujerat to the Peshwa. He consented to pay Rs. 5½ lakhs as tribute and to maintain 10,000 horse to help the Peshwa.

In 1755 the Mahrattas finally threw off the Mogul yoke in Gujerat and the country was divid-

ed between the Peshwa and the Gaekwar. The invasion of Ahmed Shah Durani, and the battle of Panipat in 1761, proved unfortunate to the Maharrattas and, after varying fortunes, the Gaekwar Damaji surrendered to the Peshwa Madhava Rao and died soon after, leaving six sons, two of whom became rivals for the *gadi*. Ultimately, Govind Rao, the second son, by fighting and purchasing titles, and after escapes and surrenders and other vicissitudes entered on a period of peace in 1799 when the Peshwa leased the Ahmedabad tract to Govind Rao, Gaekwar, who died in the following year. Anand Rao, the oldest legitimate son, succeeded as Gaekwar, but being of weak mind his illegitimate brother, Kanboji, disputed possession of the *gadi* and both of them appealed to the Bombay Government which had by that time established itself.

The Bombay Government supported Anand Rao and by way of return, the Gaekwar entered into a treaty with the Government in 1802, by which the Gaekwar ceded considerable territories and consented to the right of interference by the British, if the Gaekwar gave justification for such interference. In April 1805 a further treaty was concluded with the Bombay Government, by which the establishment of a subsidiary Military force and the cession of certain territories for its maintenance was agreed upon. By the same treaty the British were to control the foreign policy of the State. The claims of the Peshwa on the Gaekwar proved a standing source of disagreement, and was accentuated by the machinations of Kanboji, who was solicitous of the Gaekwar's position. In 1817 a treaty was signed in Poona, by which the Peshwa surrendered all past claims on the Gaekwar, and Ahmedabad was farmed in perpetuity to the Gaekwar for Rs. 4½ lakhs per annum. In the same year the Gaekwar consented to increase the subsidiary force, to cede his share of Ahmedabad on payment of its value and obtained possession of Okhamandal and the Beyt Island. Sayaji Rao succeeded Anand Rao in 1819. During Anand Rao's reign, a Commission with the Resident as President had administered the Gaekwar's province and ceased when Sayaji Rao became Gaekwar. Failing to observe the provisions of the treaties between the Bombay Government and himself, and owing to misgovernment, etc., the deposition of Sayaji Rao was contemplated in 1838, but his promises of amendment were not fully carried out and when Ganpat Rao, his son, succeeded him in 1847, he effected various reforms and reigned till 1856. In

that year, he ceded land required for the construction of the B. B. and C. I. Railway. Two years previously the political supervision of Baroda had been transferred to the Supreme Government at Calcutta. Ganpat Rao stood by the British in the Mutiny and leaving no children of his own, in 1862, he received the right of adopting an heir. He was also created a G.C.S.I. Khande Rao succeeded his brother Ganpat Rao and was not altogether a success. He constructed the branch railway from Mujagam to Dabhaoi.

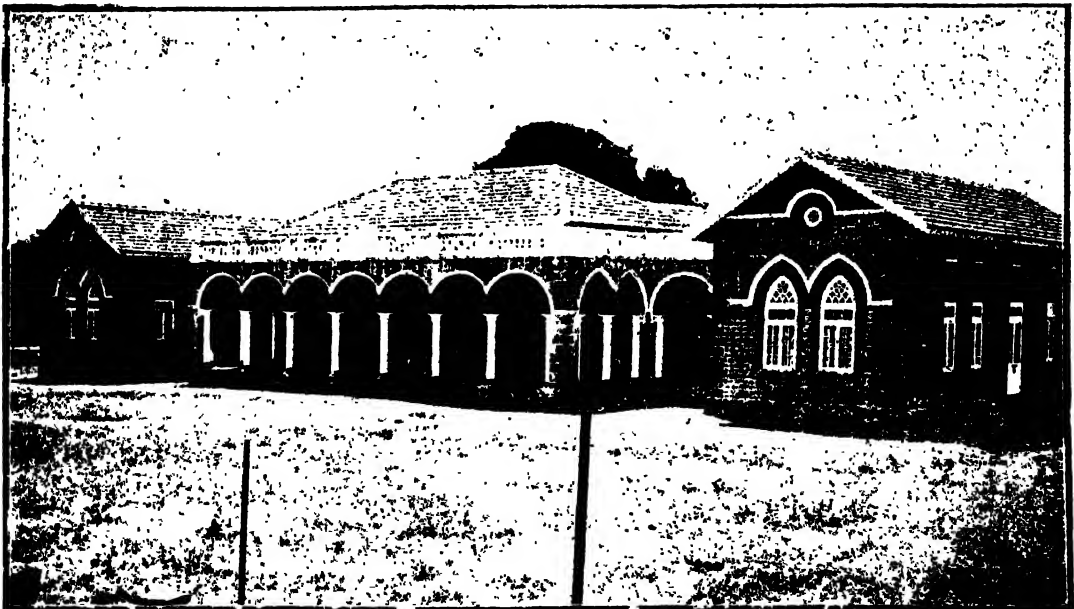
Khande Rao dying in 1870, his brother Mulhar Rao succeeded him. Mulhar Rao had been imprisoned in Padra by the Gaekwar for plotting to depose him and on his elevation to the *gadi* he began to ill-treat his late brother's dependents. The administration of the State deteriorated rapidly and many abuses crept in. In 1860 the Bombay Government had again been entrusted with the supervision of Baroda and, in view of Mulhar Rao's doings, Colonel Phayre was appointed as Resident who resolutely set himself to expose abuses. The Government of India appointed a Commission of Enquiry, whose report was that the State was badly administered. Mulhar Rao was warned and given time to improve, but an attempt to poison Colonel Phayre was attributed to his instigation and Sir Lewis Pelly assumed the virtual direction of Baroda affairs. In 1875 the Government of India issued a proclamation in which the arrest of the Maharaja Mulhar Rao was announced, and that they had assumed charge of the State and that a Committee had been appointed to investigate the alleged attempted poisoning. The Commission was formed of three English members and three Indian members, and was presided over by Sir Richard Couch, Chief Justice of Bengal. The three English members considered Mulhar Rao guilty and the three Indian members did not so believe. It was finally decided to depose the Maharaja "not because the British Government have assumed that the result of the inquiry has been to prove the truth of the imputation against His Highness, but because.....his notorious misconduct, his gross mis-government of the State and his evident incapacity to carry into effect necessary reforms" was imperatively called for. Mulhar Rao was sent to Madras where he lived until his death in 1893.

On Mulhar Rao's deposition Jamabai, the widow of Khande Rao, formally adopted with the consent of the British Government, Sayaji Rao, a boy of 13 years of age, descended from a distant branch of the family. That boy is the present Gaekwar.

THE SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY HOME, POONA.



Perhaps the undertaking which more than any other will perpetuate his (Mr. Gokhale's) work and influence was the foundation ten years ago of the Servants of India Society.— *Sir William Wedderburn.*



He (Mr. Gokhale) knew that speeches accomplish nothing unless action follows, and with this object in view he founded the Servants of India Society.— *Mr. H. W. Nevinnson.*

THE DECCAN EDUCATION SOCIETY, POONA.



Group of the Professors of the Fergusson College, Poona, taken on the eve of Mr. Gokhale's retirement from the Institution.

THE SUCCESS OF THE CONGRESS*

BY BABU AMBICA CHARAN MUZUMDAR.

Human nature, says Hobbes, is a strange admixture of contrarities. It is always dissatisfied with the present, and while the eternal law of progress incessantly impels it to court the future, it seems never tired of its lamentations for the "good old days" which it has deliberately changed and which never can return. If such inconsistency is only an aberration of human nature in general, it is the marked characteristic of the Indian temperament. To the Present it can hardly be reconciled until it has vanished into the Past, while its feeble attraction for the Future looses all its force even as it makes a new approach to the living Present. While the robust living nations of the world, believing as they do in its perpetual evolution, generally look to the past only to receive inspiration for the future, old decaying people like the Indians, whose only pride is in their past, regard the moral progress of that world as having long passed its meridian and as now being on its descending node. They have no faith in the world's resurrection until its annihilation and as such very little confidence in its future. Centuries of revolutions and changes have made them sceptical of the justice and conscience of a materialistic world, while the teachings of a mystic philosophy, which represents that world as a delusion, furnish them sufficient consolation for patient submission to "the slings and arrows of an outrageous fortune." Like hopeless bankrupts they fondly dote upon the legends of their vanished glories and while bitterly complaining of the present they are more inclined to suffer the evils which they know than fly to others which they know not. Their loyalty and devotion to time-honoured institutions and established order of things make them generally averse to a change and naturally dispose them to drift. Their contact with Western

culture has however gradually changed the angle of their vision and from the dreamland of their mystic philosophy they are slowly awakening to the realities of a living world. The Congress working on Western ideas and ideals has been largely instrumental in breaking down this inertia and in infusing a spirit of useful activity in the national character. It has dissipated the wildest fancies of a people who in their philosophical contempt for this life seemed to have acquired more intimate knowledge of the unknown than of the known, more of the next world than of this. It has inspired them with a living consciousness which has diverted their mind from the dead past to the living present and fixed their attention on the coming future with hope and confidence. But though the consciousness has come, the latent poison in the system seems not to have entirely lost its deleterious effects. In the Indian temperament a moral aversion to fight and a habitual love of repose act in the first place as a deterrent to the assumption of an aggressive attitude for the assertion of any right, and when force of circumstances constrains it to take the defensive, or to seek for a change, that temperament cannot keep up a long and sustained struggle and naturally demands a speedy solution. One score and eight years are nothing in the life of a nation, and yet within this short period there are not few people who seem to have become tired of the fight. It is besides a strange feature of the situation, that those who have rendered the least active service are the most sceptical of success and in their inert pessimism despondently, if not derisively, ask what has the Congress done for a quarter of a century? But a little reflection would show that the Indian National Congress has done more for India in twenty-five years than what the National League with all its superior advantages did in about fifty years for Ireland.

Next to the national consciousness which it has awakened the first and foremost work done

* From the writer's forthcoming book on "Indian National Evolution" to be published shortly by Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.

by the Congress is the unification of the various and diverse races inhabiting this vast country. It has moulded a vast heterogeneous population into a homogeneous whole. If the Congress had done nothing else, this one achievement alone would have justified its existence for twenty-five years. A generation ago the stalwart and turbulent Punjabi, the intelligent and sensitive Bengalee, the orthodox and exclusive Madras, the ardent and astute Mahratta, the Anglicised Parsi and the cold, calculating Guzeratti, were perfect strangers to one another, and if they happened to meet anywhere they learnt only to despise each other. Their hereditary tradition was one of mutual distrust, while their past history was marked only by internecine feuds, pillage and bloodshed. But what are they to-day? They are now all united by a strong and indissoluble tie of brotherhood, overriding all distinctions of caste and creed, and inspired by mutual appreciation and common fellowship. Hatred has given place to love and callousness to sympathy. In the prophetic words of Dr. Rajendra-lala Mitter "the scattered units of the race have coalesced and come together." The "geographical expression" has become a political entity and the "congeries of people" have come to form a nation. The descendants of the *Burgis* are now among the fastest friends of the Bengalees and many a young man now in the Gangetic delta wonder why there ever was such a thing as the Mahratta Ditch, or how the sweet lullaby with which the Bengalee baby is composed to sleep was ever invented by the matrons of an earlier generation.* A magnetic current has been established from North to South and from East to West and a common pulsation now vibrates throughout the land. A Land Alienation Bill or a Colonization Bill in the Punjab, a revision of Land Settlement in Bombay or Madras, a territorial

redistribution in Bengal and a mosque dispute in the United Provinces—now all strike the national chord and the whole country resounds in unison, and whatever administrative measure injuriously affects one province is now sorely felt and automatically resented by the other provinces. India is no longer a menagerie of wild and discordant elements and its peoples can now hardly be used as game-cocks to one another. They are now imbued with a national spirit and are daily growing in solidarity and compactness. The Congress has thus laid the first concrete foundation for the colossal work of nation-building and the establishment of an united Indian federation under the ægis of the British Crown.

DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL CHARACTER.

During the last thirty years the national character and characteristics have also undergone a remarkable change. As under the breath of the new spirit the popular mind has expanded and narrow communal sentiments have broadened into wider visions and conceptions, so the national character has also acquired a corresponding hue of healthy tone and complexion. Ideas of self-respect, self-reliance and self-sacrifice, though not yet fully developed, are quite manifest in almost every grade of society and in nearly every phase of life; while greater love of truth, courage and straightforwardness, sometimes bordering even on impertinence, are among the notable traits in the character of the educated young men in the country. The sense of humiliating dependence even in domestic relation is fast dying out, while in some places even the time-honoured corporate character of the family, the special feature of Indian social organisation, has become so much loosened as to be almost threatened with a collapse. Individualism is the most marked characteristic of the educated community and whether young or old they are all animated by a manly desire to think and act for themselves, although this tendency is too often carried to extravagant excess, on the one hand through blind, indiscreet attempts to enforce implicit obedience and on the other hand from inordinate conceit and impatience of control. It is in fact in

* As the Germans are nick-named by the French as *Boches*, so the Mahrattas who used to carry on depredations in Bengal and levy the *chouth* were called *Burgis* by the Bengalees. The doggerel to which reference is made may be rendered as follows :—"My baby sleeps; the neighbours have gone to rest; but the *Burgis* have come; the locusts have destroyed the crop, and whence shall I pay the *chouth*?" The *Burgis* at one time was the Bona of India.

this development of their character, even more than in their higher conceptions of future hopes and aspirations, that the educated community as a whole have come into direct contact and conflict with the notions and traditions of an orthodox bureaucracy which, unable to divest itself of its long-standing prejudices, starts at every change and suspects every fresh development to be a malignant growth. A claim for better treatment, a tendency to resent gratuitous insults and resist forced exactions of homage, so long enjoyed as *abwabs* by a dominant race, and above all a demand for justice and fairness are the natural outcome of the education which the people have received and the new consciousness to which they have awakened. Whether in official or public life there is no longer in the country that heavy atmosphere of cringing servility which provoked Lord Macaulay's highly coloured picture of the Indian character towards the middle of the last century, and if the noble lord had been living to-day he might well have been surprised to find, that while the people themselves have so largely shaken off the moral weaknesses with which they were so lavishly charged, "there are those among his own countrymen who secretly regret the change and would fain perpetuate in this country the spirit which he so strongly and eloquently condemned. It may be said with pardonable pride that in uprightness and integrity, in honesty of purpose and devotion to duty, in fortitude and patience, no less than in their intelligence and aptitude for work, Indians in the inferior ranks of the public services, to which their lot is generally confined, fully hold their own against Europeans who are sometimes very much their artificial superiors in position, authority and influence; while as regards the larger body of the educated public it may be no exaggeration to say, that with all their defects and shortcomings they are on the whole now a manlier race imbued with higher ideas of public duties and responsibilities in the discharge of which their own patriotic impulse supplies the only motive power and for the fulfilment of which they neither claim nor expect a higher reward than the appreciation of their countrymen and the approbation of

their own conscience. Whether it be a disastrous flood or a decimating famine, an awful outbreak of pestilence or an overwhelming pressure of a vast religious concourse, everywhere they are ready bravely to face the situation and make the necessary sacrifices. Even in anarchism, the ugliest development of the present situation, which is regarded in this country not simply as a social crime but as a mortal sin, there is a spirit of wreckless courage which if directed in proper channels might have proved a valuable asset towards a higher development of the national life, and many a young man like Kanayelal Dutt might have under better guidance and with proper opportunities died as martyrs, rather than as murderers, in the service of their King and their country.* It is not at all suggested that this national character is above reproach, or has become even properly developed. On the contrary it still suffers from many a serious defect which severe training and systematic discipline alone can eradicate. It lacks that vigour and tenacity, patience and perseverance and above all that stiffness and elasticity which constitute the backbone of a people and make human nature proof against reverses and despair. People still want that confidence in themselves and trust in others which respectively form the asset and credit of the corporate life of a nation. However unpalatable and humiliating the confession may be, if we are only true to ourselves it must be frankly recognized that one of the darkest spots and weakest points in our national character is jealousy. Many years ago in course of a private conversation a European friend, who subsequently rose to the position of Commissioner of a division, asked the writer of these pages,—what was the distinguishing feature between Indian and European character which made merit rise so slow in India and so fast in Europe? The writer began by referring to the superior intelligence, sagacity and industry of the European; but before he could proceed further his

* The present European war has opened such an opportunity. Indeed the French who are nothing if not original in everything have formed regiments of their "criminal heroes" who are giving good account of their desperate character and a similar experiment in this country might prove equally successful.

friend interrupted him saying, that he was mistaken and going in a wrong line, as the real explanation lay in another and in quite a different direction. The average European, he said, was not more intelligent than the average Indian, while as regards industry he had always found to his surprise that the ill-paid Indian ministerial officers worked more assiduously and with greater devotion than any European officer could be expected to work under similar conditions. The real answer to his question according to him was to be found in the national trait and not in any individual characteristic of the two races. "In a Western country," he said, "when a man shows signs of any extraordinary talent in any direction the whole community rushes in to push him up; but in India the general tendency is to pull him down." Although there are other material differences in the circumstances of the two races and much may be said against a generalization of this kind, it seems impossible to deny that there is considerable force in this observation. The Indian character has no doubt attained, as has already been observed, a higher level in many directions; but it can hardly be denied that even now public men have more detractors than admirers and that appreciation of public services, which is the most potent incentive to public action, is yet very feeble and inactive in this country. If we are really anxious to elevate ourselves in the scale of nations we must not deceive ourselves by putting the flattering unction to our soul. True patriotism does not consist either in blind, idolatrous veneration of a dead past, or in subtle ingenuity to extract metaphysical secrets out of metaphorical aphorisms for the gratification of vanity and egotism. A thoughtful writer has somewhere observed, that "there are natures which can extract poison from everything sweet," and it will be found upon close examination, that a spirit of captious criticism wanting in due appreciation of merit, whether in a friend or an adversary, is a mental disease which in its chronic stage works as a slow poison to the understanding as well as to other mental faculties and in the end terminates fatally to the moral nature also. There are always two

sides to a question, and a cultivated mind ought carefully to weigh the *pros* and *cons* before pronouncing judgment on it. A well-regulated, disciplined character is the first requisite of a national development. As license is not liberty, so arrogance is not independence. Leadership is not a privilege but a responsibility, and one must learn to follow before he can aspire to lead. A community where everybody is ready to command and none to obey must be either a Babel, or a Bedlam, or a Billingsgate.

SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS.

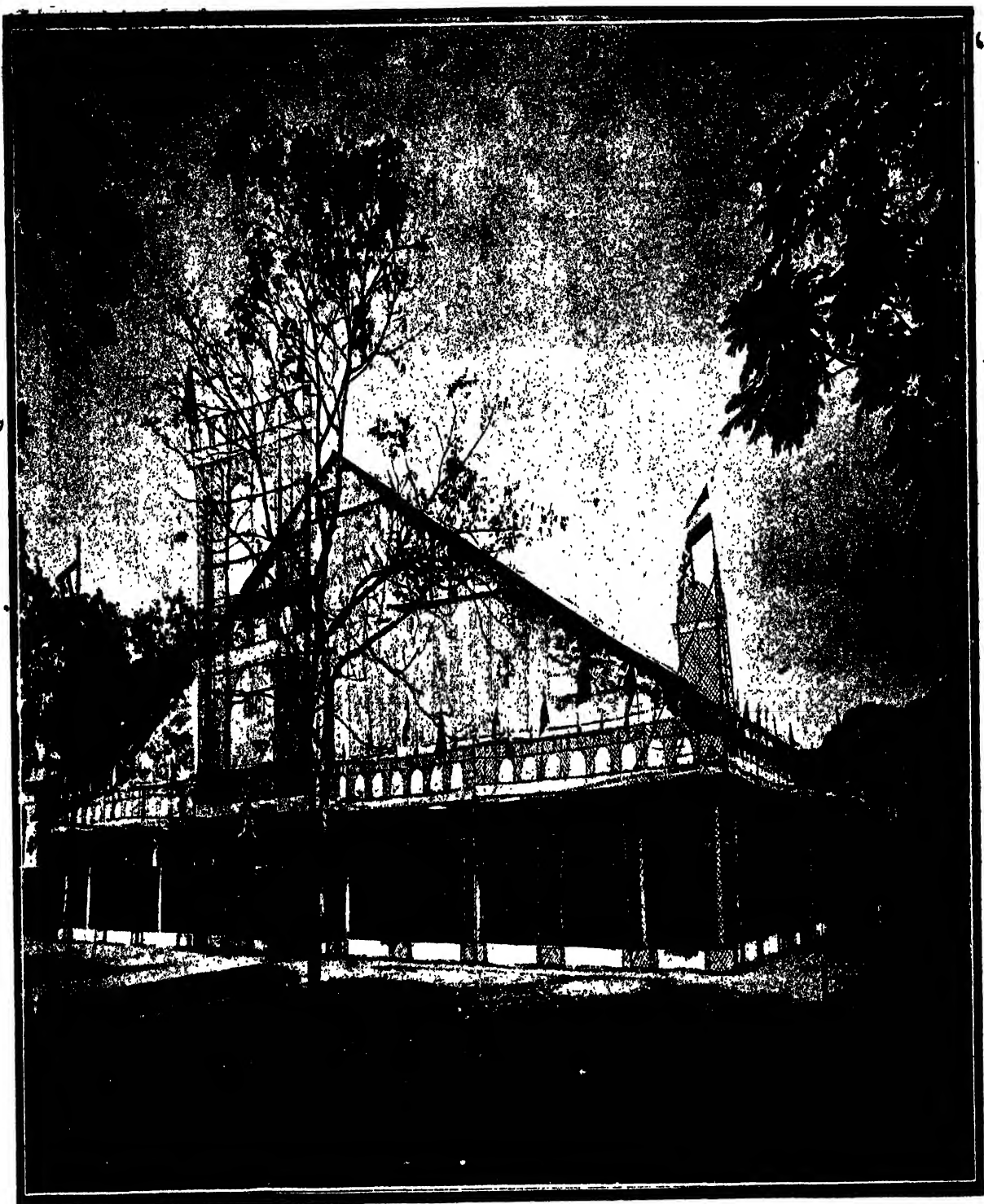
Next in order of importance is perhaps the inauguration of social reform and industrial development to both of which the Congress has so largely contributed. It will be remembered that at the outset many were the "candid friends" who advised the movement to be directed towards social and industrial reforms rather than towards premature political activities. The members of the Congress, however, neither overlooked nor under-estimated the importance of these reforms, as they were perfectly conscious that in the process of an evolution all the three were handmaids to one another, although it was equally clear to them that with all the diversities of manners, customs, habits and even laws and religions of the various races inhabiting such a vast continent, it was not possible directly to bring all the people together except upon a political platform. As the three reforms were interdependent, moving on a common axle, they understood that if a force could be imparted to one of the wheels the other two also would automatically move with it. It is a well-known fact, that it was largely the members and the supporters of the Congress who individually and in their respective spheres of influence started social and industrial movements which gradually spread throughout the country, the Congress itself being the centre from which the forces emanated in different directions. The Social Conference started in 1888 and the Industrial Conference inaugurated in 1904 were two important bodies, which, like two satellites revolving each on its own axis, have moved round the Congress in its annual course



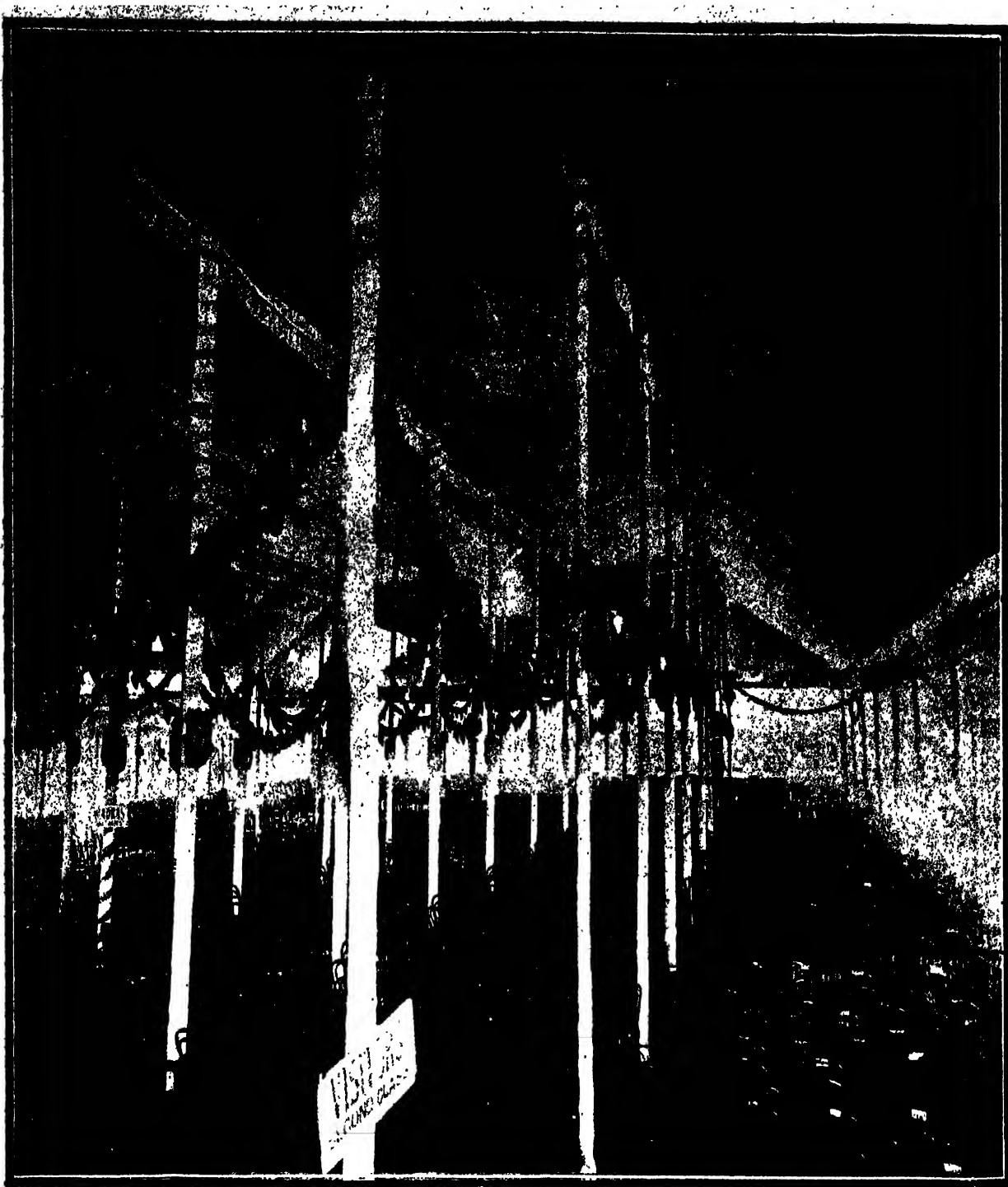
BABU BHUPENDRA NATH BASU,
President, Madras Congress, 1914.



DR. SIR S. SUBRAMANIA IYER,
Chairman, Reception Committee, Congress.



CONGRESS PAVILION—FRONT VIEW.



CONGRESS PAVILION—INTERIOR VIEW.



and contributed not a little towards social and economic advancement of the country. The Hon'ble Mahadev Govinda Ranade on the social and the Hon'ble Rao Bahadur R. N. Mudholkar on the industrial side are two of the outstanding figures of the Congress whose services to the cause of these reforms must be acknowledged with gratitude and respect. The Congress as a huge deliberative body cannot, as a matter of course, concern itself with the details of these reforms which depend upon different conditions in different provinces, but it cannot fairly be denied, that it has always acted as the pivot of all the public movements and the mainspring of all the activities which are now at work in all directions and throughout the country. Whether it be the question of sea-voyage or of the "depressed classes," whether it is the cause of marriage reform or scientific education, the actual working bodies may and must be different; but the motive impetus generated and manifested in all these directions may easily be traced to one common source,—the spirit of national consciousness evoked by the Congress. It has roused a slumbering people from the lethargy of ages and vivified them into new life. The Indians have drifted too long; but they are no longer disposed to drift. Conferences, associations and organizations have become the order of the day, and whether it be literary or historical researches, or scientific studies, or the resuscitation of decaying arts and industries, or the solution of knotty social problems, everywhere there is the manifestation of a new spirit. The restlessness and commotion which are observable almost in every walk of life, the zeal and earnestness which characterise the activities of almost all classes and communities for bettering their status and prospects in life and the high ideals which animate the people, are all symptoms of a mighty evolution that is noiselessly working its way. In the ferment of this evolution some objectionable things here and there have no doubt come to the surface; but this was unavoidable. It is impossible to extract the crystal without bringing the impurities of sugar on the surface in the boiling cauldron. The Congress no doubt is primarily a political organisation; but its

social and economic aspects can not also be disputed. Mr. Hume in his celebrated reply to Sir Auckland Colvin clearly enunciated the real aim and object of the movement. They were, he said at that early stage of the institution, "the regeneration of India on all lines, spiritual, moral, social, industrial and political." "The main body of the Congress," he added, "was directed to national and political objects upon which the whole country was able to stand on a common ground." But, as was pointed out, "the social requirements varied according to race, caste and creed, so that they had to be dealt by separate organizations suited to each province or community." Thus while the actual working machineries were different, the electric installation which supplied the motive power for all of them was one and the same, which led Sir William Wedderburn to point out that as a matter of fact "the workers for political progress were the most active friends of social reform," and, he might well have added, that they were also among the early pioneers of the industrial movement and the founders of not a few of the small industries which made such marked progress during the last few years. Some of these enterprises have no doubt suffered a serious collapse; but these occasional lapses are almost incidental to a nascent stage. Children stagger and stumble before they acquire a steady use of their limbs. Want of training and absence of sound knowledge and experience and possibly some lack of moral strength also are at the root of these failures which, however deplorable in themselves, afford no just ground either for alarm or despair. The South Sea Bubble in England and the Panama enterprise in France were far greater disasters; but both the British and the French people have long outlived these misadventures. A spirit of enterprise once created cannot die; but fanned by its own wings Phoenix-like it is bound to rise out of its own ashes.

The much-abused Swadeshi movement has a history of its own. Bombay was earlier in the field of industrial development with modern appliances and machineries; but Bengal and Madras had an indigenous textile industry on a more extensive scale which was practically

extinct under foreign competition. The situation was everywhere viewed with grave anxiety, though nowhere, except in the Western Presidency, any active effort was made to grapple with it until a cry for the revival of the indigenous industries was raised in Bengal where the immortal patriotic song of Mr. Mon Mohan Bose, the founder of the now defunct Swadeshi Mela, is still heard with thrilling interest. The necessity for preferential treatment of indigenous articles was vigorously pressed at some of the earlier Provincial Conferences in Bengal, notably at Burdwan in 1894, and also on several other occasions where ardent Congressmen drew prominent attention to the growing poverty and helplessness of the people for want of sufficient encouragement of indigenous industries. A formal proposal for preferential treatment of home-made products was for the first time submitted to the Subjects-Committee of the Congress held at Ahmedabad in 1902; but owing to a divergence of opinion it failed to pass through the Committee. In 1905, the people of Bengal exasperated by a violent disruption of the province adopted a general boycott of all foreign articles. On the 7th of August, a huge and unprecedented demonstration was held at the Calcutta Town Hall in which at a modest calculation over thirty thousand people took part in three different sections, two in the upper and lower floors of the historic hall and the other and by far the largest section in the spacious open *maidan* in front. So intense was the feeling that the spirit of the movement marched like wild fire and the contagion spread in no time from Lahore to Tuticorin and from Assam to Guzerat. It was generally based upon economic grounds; but it cannot be denied that the movement had its origin in Bengal as a protest against the Partition. The Congress, while not countenancing the boycott, gave formal sanction to the *Swadeshi* in 1906 and enjoined the people to give preference to indigenous articles "wherever practicable and even at a sacrifice." With all its lapses and indiscretions, which are almost inseparable from all movements which have their origin in tremendous popular excitement, the *Swadeshi* movement must be admitted to have given a great impetus to the

development of indigenous industries in this country. That development may not yet have been very remarkable; but it is doubtless gratifying that it has revived the weaving industry and directed the energies of the people into new channels of activity. For soap and scent, shoes and trunk, nib and ink, socks and vests, pottery and cutlery, as well as various kinds of woollen and silken stuff, the country can now well afford to stand, though not in the best style, substantially on its own leg; while the Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works started under the initiative and guidance of that eminent Indian scientist, Dr. P. C. Roy, have elicited the unstinted admiration of even those who are disposed to draw a sharp distinction between true and false *Swadeshi*.

Above all the patriotic labours of Mr. Jamsetji Nasservanji Tata have created an epoch in the industrial regeneration of India. Bombay received her early initiation in Industrialism from the American Civil War of 1861-65 when her attention was drawn to her opportunities in cotton trade. Although Bombay has never ceased to complain about the arbitrary and exacting system of her land settlement under the operation of which the fruits of her agricultural labours are periodically shorn off like the proverbial sheep to meet the demands of the State, she may yet find sufficient consolation in the thought that the industrial activities and enterprises of her people may be due in no small measure to the depressing conditions imposed in their case upon agricultural pursuits which appear to have so largely absorbed the comparatively indolent population of the permanently settled provinces; while her own people driven from the fields to the factories have found ample compensation for the precarious doles of nature in the larger bounties of arts and industries. The first cotton mill in Bombay was started in 1855 by Cowasji Nanabhoy Davar who was followed by a noble band of equally enterprising industrialists among whom the names of Roychand Premchand, Sir Jamsetji Jejeebhoy and Sir Dinshaw Manekji Petit are known throughout the country. But the greatest and brightest of this galaxy of stars who ushered in the industrial renaissance of modern India was perhaps

Jamsetji Nasservanji Tata. Full of patriotic ideas and sentiments Mr. Tata established in 1886 a new cotton mill which he appropriately styled the "Swadeshi Mills." But the greatest work of Mr. Tata which will ever enshrine his name in the grateful memory of his countrymen is the Scientific Research Institute for which he made a princely donation of 30 *lakhs* of rupees and which planned and matured during his lifetime was subsequently established, with the help and co-operation of the Governments of India and of Mysore, by his worthy son Sir Dorab Tata at Bangalore within the territories of the latter. Mr. Tata's Vulcan Steel and Iron Factory recently established at Sakchi within the territories of another Indian prince, the Maharajah of Morbhunj in Orissa and his Electric Installation at Bombay for utilizing the waters of the Western Ghats, are colossal projects which bear testimony not only to his extraordinary genius and enterprise, but also to the vigour and robustness of the industrial renaissance which has dawned upon the country with the first awakening of its national consciousness. Truly has the biographer of Mr. Tata remarked that he "was a Swadeshi of Swadeshis long before Swadeshim was boomed in Bengal."

The Co-operative Movement, which has made such rapid strides during the last few years throughout the country and particularly in Bengal, is another evidence of the spirit of self-help which has come to animate the national character and of the aptitude which the people have acquired for the management of their own affairs. It is indeed a matter of as much regret as of gratification, that in all these healthy developments the people had so little to count upon the active help and co-operation of the State and so largely to depend upon their own resources. With the notable exception of the Tata Iron Works there appears to be no industrial project in which the Government has as yet either taken the initiative or generously extended a substantially helping hand. Whether for training men in scientific and industrial education in foreign countries, or in starting new industries at home, the people have had practically to depend upon their unaided efforts and their extremely

limited resources; while the examples of Japan and China in the East and of the Philippi in the West have served only to tantalize and mortify a people proverbially the poorest in the modern civilized world. The patriotic efforts of Messrs. Narendranath Sen, Jogendra Chandra Ghose in Bengal and J. N. Tata in Bombay for giving technical education to our young men were movements in the right direction; but for want of adequate support and encouragement they practically collapsed after a short but very useful career of existence. It may be remembered, that even in the seventies and eighties of the last century it was almost a fashion in certain quarters to twit the people with their universal hankering after services under the State which it was truly impossible for any Government to satisfy; but now that the people have realized their mistake and turned their attention to industrial and other developments, men in authority are not wanting to remind them that "India is essentially an agricultural country," and that as such their hands should be directed to the plough and not to the steam-engine; while a responsible member of the Supreme Government, being recently driven almost to a corner on the question of state aid to some of the crippled industries in the country, plainly said, that India need not care about her industrial development when there was England to supply all her requirements. What a frank confession and a bitter disappointment! If England could have supplied all the wants of India it would not have been possible for Germany to swamp her market. Besides, where is the Ordinance of Nature which has made this classification among mankind and provided that some people must not learn to govern themselves, but be content with being well-governed, and that some countries must extract only raw materials from Mother Earth leaving others to convert them into more valuable finished articles? Providence certainly has nowhere prescribed these conditions and sanctioned this division of labour. True it is that all people are not at all times equally trained and equally competent to participate in the blessings of arts and sciences; but it should be the highest aim of a benevolent Government,

whether foreign or indigenous, to foster and stimulate as far as lies in its power the energies and activities of the people committed to its care in every right direction for the advancement and amelioration of their economic condition. Even free and resourceful countries like Germany and Japan have had to count upon state bounties and subsidies for their economic development, and India cannot fairly be expected to work out her salvation through more enquiries, reports, and exhibitions. The present European war has opened a vast field for the expansion and development of Indian industries. The extensive trades of Germany and Austria have been driven out of the Indian market and if prompt measures could be taken to replace them by indigenous productions, the economic problem of the country might be easily solved and at the same time the position of Government materially strengthened. But the Government seems hardly to realize the importance of this opportunity which has arisen as a unique good coming out of a dire evil. The Congress at its last session as well as the Indian public, earnestly pressed the question on the attention of Government, nor has the European mercantile community altogether failed to express its views on the subject. Mr. Ledgard, as chairman of the Upper India Chamber of Commerce, is reported to have pressed at its last annual meeting "the importance of vigorous preparations for stepping into Germany's shoes in the matter of trade" and regretted that the "Government had not been able to give any indication of a policy of assistance towards industrial enterprise that might enable the country to take advantage of the situation." It may, however, be hoped that it is not yet too late to indicate that policy, so that the precious opportunity may not be entirely lost.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT AND REFORM OF JUDICIAL ADMINISTRATION.

The efforts of the Congress towards the expansion of Local Self-Government and the reform of the Judicial Administration have not, however, met with any encouraging success. Nearly thirty years have elapsed since Lord Ripon introduced the principle of Self-Govern-

ment in the administration of the local affairs of the people in the ardent hope that it might prove the stepping-stone towards their attainment of National Self-Government in the higher administration of the country. But within this period the institution has not advanced one step forward and it is still held in the same leading string with which it was started, though it seems doubtful if in certain directions its tether has not been even appreciably shortened. The number of the municipal corporations, which are properly speaking the really self-governing bodies in the country, has undergone no perceptible increase, while their powers and privileges have clearly not been enhanced, although in not a few cases they have been ruthlessly curtailed. As regards the larger bodies of District and Local Boards, these have been practically converted into a department of the District Administration directly under the District Officer, and it certainly looks strange that not a single District has been found within the lifetime of a generation fit to be entrusted with a non-official chairman for this institution. Times without number has the Congress pressed for a provisional experiment which the law expressly provides, and at least one Commissioner of an important division in Bengal strongly recommended such a trial. But a consideration of the official prestige of the District Officer, who must be provided 'octopus-like' as it were with a number of tentacles to enable him to maintain his position and dignity, has apparently over-ridden all claims of justice and fairness, and perhaps it would be no exaggeration to say that the Local Self-Government Acts of the different provinces are to all intents and purposes a misnomer and the institutions themselves have become fossilized without any possibility of growth or development, though they may of course be liable to further decay. There can be no reasonable complaint against legitimate control. But if the Government has a responsibility in supervising the workings of these popular institutions, it is also not without its corresponding obligation to foster, develop and improve them. Control without co-operation is only another name for obstruction. It is in the air, that it is in the contemplation

of Government also to officialize the Co-operative Credit Societies, which the people have evolved and worked out partially to relieve their economic pressure. It is to be hoped that a powerful government will not lay itself open to the charge of assuming the sponsorship of institutions in whose baptism it had little or no hand, and however justly responsible it may feel for safeguarding the honesty and integrity of these institutions, it may be fully expected that nothing will be done either to stunt their growth, or to alienate popular sympathies and confidence from them.

As regards the reform of the Judicial Administration, the first principle enunciated by the Congress is practically admitted, and it is no longer disputed that administration stands in need of revision; but here also, as in the case of Local Self-Government, the morbid bugbear of official prestige stands in the way. The Decentralization Commission simply evaded the question; but the present Public Service Commission will have to decide it either one way or the other. Various palliatives have been suggested by those who are no longer able to defend the existing system, but are at the same time unwilling to part with it. But these are mere makeshifts which can only defer and not solve the question. The question has considerably matured itself and the Congress will have to start a fresh campaign in the light of the Royal Commission's pronouncements to drive the discussion to a satisfactory conclusion.

PARLIAMENTARY ENQUIRIES.

As has already been observed, the last Parliamentary enquiry into Indian affairs was made in 1854, and ever since the transfer of the rule to the Crown in 1858 both Parliament as well as the Government, whether Liberal or Conservative, were alike indifferent to the Indian administration which was complacently left into the hands of a close bureaucracy. The very first Congress of 1885 vigorously protested against this indifference and pressed for a Royal Commission to enquire into the Indian administration. In 1897 the Welby Commission was appointed, and since then there have been the Decentralisation Commis-

sion in 1902 and the Chamberlain Commission and the Islington Commission which are now carrying on their investigations. The Government of India also instituted the Education Commission of 1882 and the Police Commission of 1902. The results of these Commissions may not have so far come up to the fullest expectations of the people and may have in some cases proved even disappointing to them. But they bear undoubted testimony to the growing interest felt both in England, as well as in this country, in the increasingly important and complicated administration of India. It is in the nature of all bureaucratic rules to accord a readier acceptance to retrograde suggestions than to progressive recommendations; but the Indian Nationalist need not despair. However cautious or dilatory the Government may be in giving effect to the various wholesome recommendations of these Commissions, it can never hope to set them aside. There they are among the permanent archives of the Government laying down policies and principles which may be carried forward, but upon which it would be difficult, if not absolutely impossible, to go back. Stern, necessary changes may be deferred, but cannot be averted when they are pressed by the irresistible force of time and circumstance.

PUBLIC MEN AND PUBLIC SPIRIT.

The vitality of a nation is gauged by its power of producing capable men at all critical stages of its life. Mazzini and Garibaldi in Italy, Thiers and Gambetta in France, Yuanshi-kai and Sun-Yet-Sen in China, Enver Bey and Izzat Pasha in Turkey,—all have proved, that though passing through the severest ordeal of their national existence, neither the Italians nor the French, neither the Chinese nor the Turks were among the dead nations of the world. The Indian National Congress, though dealing with a subject race, labouring under enormous difficulties and disabilities has produced a class of self-sacrificing, self-reliant, resourceful, robust and patriotic men some of whom, at all events, under more favourable circumstances might well have taken their places by the side of some of the foremost men in European politics. Their lot might have forbidden

them from commanding the applause of the political world and consigned them to the strictures and captious criticisms of an orthodox and inflated bureaucracy; but there are men among them who, if their Sovereign had commanded, might have formed a cabinet or held a portfolio. The most obdurate of pessimists will probably admit and the most cynical of critics acknowledge, that with all their shortcomings these men are not altogether unworthy products of the modern Indian renaissance which has dawned under the ægis of the British rule. They have at all events conclusively proved that most of the Indian races still possess sufficient vitality and moral stamina to aspire to a place in the comity of civilised nations in the world. The public men whom the Congress has produced and the spirit of self-help which it has evoked are perhaps among the most valuable working capital of the country.

The Nineteen eminent Indians who have so far adorned the presidential chair of the Congress will no doubt go down to posterity as among the pioneers of Indian nation-builders. They are all men who have made their mark in Indian History. But besides these, the Congress has produced a galaxy of men of whom any country might be justly proud. Dr. Rajendra Lala Mitra, Rajah Peary Mohan Mukherjee, Sir Romesh Chander Mitter, Sir Goorudas Bannerjee, Mr. Monomohan Ghose, Mr. Norendra Nath Sen, Mr. (now Mr. Justice) Asutosh Choudhry, Mr. Baikunta Nath Sen, Dr. Ravindra Nath Tagore, Mr. A. Rasul, Mr. Motilal Ghose, Mr. Kalicharan Bannerjee, and Mr. Bhupendra Nath Basu * in Bengal; Maharajah Sir Luchmeswar Singh, Mr. (now Mr. Justice) Hasan Imam, Mr. Dip Narain Singh, Mr. Guruprasad Sen, and Mr. Mazar-ul Haque in Behar; Pandit Ajudhya Nath, Pandit Bismambhar Nath, Dr. Sunderlal, Mr. Ganga Prasad Varma and Raja Rampal Singh in the United Provinces; Sirdar Dayal Singh Mehatia, Lala Lajput Rai and Mr. Mahomed Ali in the Punjab; Mr. M. G. Ranade, Mr. K. T. Telang, Mr. Daji Abaji Khare, Mr. Luxman Nulkar, Mr. Hari Chiplankar, Mr. Bal Ganga-

dhar Tilak, Sir Ibrahim Rahimtullah, Dr. Bhandarkar, Mr. Setalvad and Mr. Mahamedali Jinnah in Bombay; and Mr. Krishnaswami Iyer, Mr. G. Subramania Iyer, Mr. Veeraghava Achari, Mr. Ramaswami Muddaliar, Sir Subramaniya Iyer and Mr. Vejjaraghava Achari in Madras,—all rank among the shining lights of this period. Many of these distinguished men would ere long have taken their places in the illustrious roll of the Congress Presidents but for premature death which seems to be the prevailing curse of India. The public services of some of these men have also been recognised by the Government, while all of them occupy a high position in the estimation of their countrymen as their trusted guides and leaders.

THE PUBLIC SERVICES.

From the very beginning the Congress has persistently urged the larger admission of the children of the soil into the public services of the country, and a mere glance through the pages of the Civil Lists will at once show what substantial advancement the country has made in this direction. Even up to the sixties of the last century the average people were under the impression, that the Principal Sudder Ameen on the one side and the Deputy Collector on the other were the highest appointments open to the children of the soil and the idea of a native of India sitting as a Sessions Judge or as a District Officer appeared only as a dream. The first Indian Civilian who was a Bengali was not appointed to his own province; while the distinguished triumvirate, also Bengalis, who followed in the next decade, received an ovation upon their return in 1871 which is now seldom accorded to the Governor of a province. Whole Calcutta went to the Seven Tanks Gardens in the Belgachia Villa to witness as it were an exhibition of a curious specimen of speaking lions brought from Europe; while no less a sober person than the venerable Dr. K. M. Bannerjee in his patriotic pride and exultation cried out at a public meeting that the event was the "second great battle of Plassey fought on British soil." Many a "battle of Plassey" of the same description have since been fought and won without attracting much attention. Compare the earlier

* Since elected president of the Madras Congress of 1914.

picture of the public services with the present and there will be no difficulty in realising the actual measure of the inwardness of that robust optimism which possesses the minds of the veterans of the Congress as regards the future prospects of the people in the administration of the country. Even so late as the eighties of the last century none dared seriously entertain the faintest hope of seeing Indians on the Council of the Secretary of State, or in the Executive Councils of the Governments in this country, or even in a Provincial Board of Revenue. Yet all these are now accomplished facts. The Indians have now fully established their claims from the chartered High Courts and the Executive Governments downwards to almost every branch of the Civil administration, and the question now is only one of percentage regard being had to alleged efficiency of the services and exigencies of the State. There is still a sharp distinction drawn between what are called the Imperial and the Provincial Services in the general administration, as well as in the Education, Medical and almost all other departments of the State; but this is a shallow, artificial device to keep up a monopoly which cannot, however, be long maintained, and a systematic vigorous campaign is all that is necessary to break down this racial and colour fencing which still bars the people's entrance into the inner sanctuary of the administration. But as the irritating and invidious distinction cannot be defended on any rational principle and as breaches have been effected at certain points, the surrender of the strongholds of a loose, selfish bureaucracy can only be a question of time. Attempts may be made, as are not infrequently made, to repair these breaches, but the ultimate fall of these citadels is inevitable. It is, however, a matter of great regret, if not of surprise, that men are not wanting, even among people of this country who having themselves risen high in the rung of the public services as the result of persistent public agitation should be among those who denounce such agitation lest further agitation might interfere with their future prospects. There is a grim humour about such an attitude which is not unlike that of a belated railway passenger who before he reaches

his station eagerly wishes that the train might be a little late; but as soon as he has comfortably secured his own berth begins to grow impatient that it should be any more late in starting. Apparently with a view to cover their own selfishness these good people confidently assert, that public agitation has stopped the right of public meeting and necessitated the Press law. But can these critics picture even in their own mind a public meeting without some sort of agitation behind it? Or, can they conceive of any use of the valued right of the freedom of public meeting and of speech if it were to be divorced from agitation either for the removal of existing grievances, or for the acquisition of fresh rights? Public meetings cannot be always confined to singing *requiem* to an ex-judge or a retired magistrate however brilliant his career may have been, nor does the salvation of the country wholly depend upon the success of a few subservient officers who seem to have learnt the art of "kicking the ladder behind" almost to gymnastic perfection. As for the new Press Act, or the other repressive measures which the Government has latterly introduced, it is the grossest ignorance that can attribute these to public agitation which the British constitution not only allows, but also encourages. Even the authors of these reactionary measures did not attribute them to public agitation, but to some other condition too well known to require any particular reference. It is healthy agitation that invigorates public life in every civilised country; and it is a well-recognised fact that it is opposing forces which in their resultant action keep up the vitality of a system and serve to maintain and strengthen it. Those who are afraid of agitation and enamoured of the calm repose of an easy-going, smooth, indolent life ought to remember that the stagnant water of a pool, though transparent and tempting to the naked eye, is always full of noxious germs and injurious to the system; while the muddy water of the running stream is not only wholesome to drink, but is also fertilising to the ground which it inundates.

THE YOUNG MEN VOLUNTEERS.

Another achievement of which the Congress may justly be proud is the healthy and vigorous

impetus which it has given to the development of moral courage and discipline of the Indian youths. The system of "Volunteers," which was first introduced in connection with the Second Congress held in 1886 and was more fully organised in Madras in the following year, was a very useful institution for the training of our young men not only for the immediate object with which it was started, but also for preparing them to become proper and efficient citizen-soldiers for the battle of life. These "Volunteers" no doubt came to carry a bad odour with the authorities at a subsequent stage and in connection with a situation for which no one perhaps deplored more deeply or suffered more grievously than the Congressmen; but the Indian public have never been able to divest themselves of the belief that the "Congress Volunteers" were really more sinned against than sinning and that they had a bad name given to them only to justify their being afterwards hanged for it. If their open and occasional services to the Congress really could have anything to do with the secret, abominable practices of a disreputable gang of fanatics, why, then the drilling and the gymnastic exercises in the schools and even the laboratories in the colleges, for which the Government itself so amply and generously provided, might with equal, if not greater, propriety have been held responsible for these untoward and disgraceful developments. It seems to have been well remarked by a shrewd Frenchman that "when John Bull begins to suspect he generally begins at the wrong end." This suspicion has no doubt succeeded in a large measure in segregating the youths of the country, not sparing even young men in colleges, from the sphere of all political activities; but no reasonable explanation is forthcoming as to how beardless boys are strangely developing criminal instincts and dispositions being practically confined within what may not be improperly called as insecure goals under a strict politico-educational surveillance. In a laudable anxiety to protect the boys the schools have been practically converted into plague camps where, completely cut off from the bracing atmosphere of healthy public influence, these unsuspecting and impressionable innocents fall easy prey to

the insidious, pestilential spirits which are abroad and which working in secret find ample opportunity to penetrate into the closest recesses to misguide these immature lads under grossest misrepresentations and allure them to their ultimate ruin. It seems extremely doubtful if the moral nature of man can be entirely governed by physical laws and regulations. Stunt that nature in its normal development in one direction, it will burst out in a malignant growth in another. Besides, there are to be found a few black sheep in almost every flock to poison the rest. Thus schools may be barricaded and students segregated and circularized; but there seems to be no island of Juan Fernandez where a resourceful mind may not devise means for its occupation and ultimately escape out of it. It seems a grievous mistake to exclude impressionable young minds altogether from the chastening influence of public opinion and try to turn useful citizens out of cloisters and dormitories. The public is a great monitor and a force, and if it sometimes misleads, it oftener exercises a healthy influence in shaping and moulding social life. Whatever that may be, the Congress Volunteers practically discharged from the Congress service have found scope for more active occupation in other and more useful directions. Mr. Gokhale's "Servants of India" in Bombay and Mr. Krishnakumar Mitra's "Irregulars" in Bengal are highly useful bodies whose invaluable services in times of distress and difficulty have not failed sometimes to elicit the unstinted approbation and admiration of even responsible officers of Government. They may not yet be recognized as occasional, useful adjuncts to the administration; but they are undoubtedly a most valuable help to the public on many a pressing occasion. On the whole these institutions are a training academy for the Indian youths which have made them ever so manly, so enduring, so courageous, so resourceful and so self-sacrificing in their life and conduct.

THE EXPANSION OF THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS.

Among the many minor reforms effected at the instance of the Congress may be mentioned the increase in the taxable minimum for the Income Tax; the raising of the age-limit for

the Civil Service Examination ; a further extension of Trial by Jury though on a very limited scale ; a partial redress of forest grievances ; the re-imposition of the import duties on cotton, though with a countervailing excise duty on the indigenous products which practically operates as a protection to British manufactures, and the repeal of the English duty on Silver plates, for all of which the Congress carried on a persistent agitation both in this country as well as in England. But by far the greatest political achievement of the Congress is perhaps the reform and expansion of the Legislative Councils and the appointment of Executive Councils for the major provinces in which at least one Indian member has found a place. All the provinces and administrations, whether under Lieutenant-Governors or Chief Commissioners, are provided with local Legislative Councils of their own. The number of members for the Councils has been increased and the area of representation considerably widened. The right of interpellation with the power of putting supplementary questions and the right of moving resolutions and introducing Bills, are all important privileges secured, the value of which cannot be under-estimated. The Congress strenuously fought for these reforms ever since 1885, and it is these substantial privileges, which were partially conceded in 1892 and more fully granted in 1910, that have led many an alarmist to cry 'halt' and to urge that the Congress having achieved its main object has no just ground for its further existence. To the Indian Nationalist, however, it is only the thin end of the wedge, and if ever there was a time to strike vigorously that time has now arrived. The Congress has never made any secret of its ultimate goal, and while that goal is yet faintly looming in the dim, distant future it cannot afford to rest on its oars, nor regard its mission as even partially fulfilled. If the attainment of national Self-Government within the Empire is its aim, if India is to throw off the yoke of a Dependency and acquire the status of a Dominion, then it must be admitted that the Congress has only just entered on a career of useful existence and that these reforms mark only the beginning and not the end of its arduous task. It is no doubt

a matter of rejoicing that a breach has at last been effected in the outer ramparts of a benevolent Despotism ; but if the inner citadel be the real objective it would be simply foolish to pass the live-long day in only dancing and revelling over that breach. Besides, what are the reforms that have really been effected ? Without being guilty of want of proper appreciation it seems quite permissible to point out, that these reforms are mere faint adumbrations of a rough political sketch the full representation of which in its true colours has yet to be evolved. It is only the shadow and not the real substance which has been thrown on the screen. The representation granted is still very inadequate and the electorates highly defective ; the majority is still with the Government and where it has been conceded to the people it is simply nominal and illusory. The representatives of the people have yet no control over the finances and the resolutions which they are privileged to move, and upon which they are entitled also to divide the councils, too often prove to be the proverbial Dead-Sea Apple that crumbles to the touch. They have yet no binding force and cannot influence the policy of Government. As regards the substantial modification introduced in the composition of the Executive Councils of both the Imperial and the Provincial Governments it has to be noticed, that public opinion does not count for anything and popular representatives of unquestioned ability, judgment and independence, who fought for the reform, are carefully excluded from the list. Men like Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, Mr. G. K. Gokhale,* Mr. Surendra Nath Banerjee and Dr. Rashbehary Ghose have no place in these Councils, and the people cannot be very much blamed if they still labour under the impression that the bureaucracy are ill-disposed to admit their equals and that there is still a marked tendency to take away with one hand what is given with the other. The voice of the people thus still continues to be practically the same cry in the wilderness that it used to be before, with this difference that,

* Alas ! Mr. Gokhale is no more ! Since these pages were sent to the press the saintly politician has passed away leaving a void in this ill-fated country which is not likely to be soon filled up.

that voice has found a channel for its articulation and cannot now be stifled. People are not therefore wanting who honestly think, that the present Councils are at best counterfeit representations of representative institutions as understood in the British constitution. They certainly bear a striking family resemblance to not a few of the mimic reforms which have found their way in this country and among which mention may be made of the system of trial with the aid of assessors with which a renowned political juggler, more than thirty years ago, hoodwinked the people of this country as being a fair substitute for Trial by Jury. From this, however, it must not be inferred that these reforms are altogether discounted. In fact they are neither such shams as some hyper-critics among us would represent them to be; nor are they the very quintessence of British statesmanship as Sir Valentine Chirol and others of his school would have us believe. They undoubtedly mark a distinct advance in Indian politics and constitute a substantial instalment of political enfranchisement of the people. If they have done nothing else, these reforms must be admitted to have furnished the people with powerful weapons for clearing the ground before them, while they are not yet out of the wood. Lord Morley's imagination may not be able to pierce through the prevailing gloom to catch the faintest glimpse of India's future destiny; but all the same he may have been the unconscious instrument in the hand of an inscrutable Providence to work out her salvation, and it may be the proud privilege of the future historian to reckon him as the Simon de Montfort of an Indian Parliament. The Congress from the very outset pressed either for the abolition or for the reform of the Council of the Secretary of State. Although no statutory reform has yet been introduced, the appointment of two Indians to this Council has gone a great way towards a fair recognition of the principle of representation in this Council so persistently advocated by the Congress; while the recent attempt of Lord Crewe for the reform of this Council was an augury of considerable importance towards a satisfactory solution of the question, though unfortunately that attempt has proved abortive at least for the present.

Such is the brief survey of the work done by the Congress during the last twenty-eight years of its existence. Apart from its political aspects the Congress has been the fountain-head and mainspring of not a few of the activities which have manifested themselves in various directions during the last quarter of a century and inspired the people with ideas of a nobler, manlier and healthier life.

THE NATIVE STATES—AN OBJECT-LESSON.

It may not be in the recollection of many at this distance of time, that at one of the early stages of the Congress a question was actually raised and discussed in the Press as to whether the sphere of the movement should not be extended to the independent Native States. It was, however, wisely decided that the subjects of these States should be left to themselves and the work of the Congress confined to British India only. But the blessed contagion did not take much time in crossing the frontiers and spreading far beyond the British territories when the echo of the Congress was also heard in some of these independent principalities, although it was there the Princes rather than the People who took time by the forelock and adopted the initiative in advanced administration. The enlightened rulers of Baroda, Mysore and Travancore have set an example even to the paramount power the significance of which cannot be lost upon the minds of the more advanced British subjects. Much has been said and written on the supposed differences between the East and the West and where logic has failed fallacies have been invoked to support the contention that India is constitutionally unfit for the advanced institutions of the West and that no attempt can therefore be made to cultivate them even in a hot-house in this country. But these Indian Princes have, among other things, conclusively proved that representative institutions are not altogether foreign to Indian instincts and that there need be no nervousness about either the introduction of free and compulsory education among the masses, or in the separation of the judicial and the executive functions of a State. What a sad commentary this to the vacillating policy of a mighty, distrustful bureaucracy!

Saints Manickavachakar and Appar.*

BY MR. M. S. POORNALINGAM PILLAI, B.A., L.T.

MANICKAVACHAKAR.

§ SINCE the publication of the translation of *Thiruvachakam* into English by the late Rev. Dr. Pope, the name of this saint which is a household word in all South Indian Saiva homes has gained celebrity, and his sacred volume has been well thumbed by foreign scholars who have written theses on the Saint's conception of God, on his teachings, and on his life of devotion. *The Age of Manickavachakar* by Mr. S. A. Thirumalaikolundu Pillai, B.A., was a pioneer work in the line and roused the dormant Dravidian intellect into activity. It raised quite a storm of controversy, and the interest created by it has not abated. The age question has been tackled by every ambitious student of Tamil literature, though no satisfactory solution of the mystery enshrouding it has been arrived at. The form, the rhythm, and the matter of the Saiva Psalter have set the student of modern research to question the priority of the Saint to the three great Devara hymners. The modern character of the gem-like lyrics lends colour to the view of his posteriority, and the omission of his name from the Tamilian hagiology prepared by St. Sundarar reinforces it. The explanations generally offered for this non-mention—that Manickavachakar trod the highest path of *Sanmarga*, in which separate personal identity as lord and servant was impossible, and was therefore distinct from the reputed Servants of God or Thondars, or that the comprehensive phrase 'poets that serve not God falsely' included him—are more ingenious than convincing. The reference to King Arimarthana Pandya offers no clue to the determination of the age question as epigraphy is silent about it. Some shreds of historical evidence have, however, been afforded by the Saint's *Kovai*, which makes mention of Varaguna Pandyan who lived in the early part of the ninth century, and by his conversion of the Ceylon Buddhists, which is corroborated by the Rajaratnakari of Ceylon and which is alleged to have occurred in the latter half of the ninth century. These go to show that our Saint must have lived after the days of St. Sundarar. But one thing we have to reckon with before hazarding this

conclusion. Did the Ceylon Buddhist conversion at Chidambaram take place when there were no Buddhists in South India? In the days of St. Appar and St. Jnanasambandar, Buddhism and Jainism had to be fought against very seriously and overthrown in order to propagate Hinduism. That the Buddhists came all the way from Ceylon to Chidambaram to hold a disputation with Saint Manickavachakar there points to a time long anterior to the prevalence of Buddhism in South India. Whatever his age, his heart-melting strains bear their charm with them and are held as a precious and sacred heirloom by every worshipper of Siva in the peninsula.

The story of this "Hammer of the Buddhists" is briefly told. He was a Brahmin by birth and a native of Vathavur in the Pandyan kingdom. He was known as Vathavurar. In his teens he mastered the liberal arts and his reputation for learning reached the ears of the King Arimarthana Pandya. He was appointed Prime Minister and dubbed Thennavan Brahmaroyan. One day intelligence was carried to the king of the arrival of very fine horses at a Chola port, and the king, fond of a large stud, deputed the Prime Minister to buy them. He took plenty of money from the royal treasury and started. When he approached Perunthurai, his ears were assailed by a hum of prayers from a neighbouring grove. Curiosity led him thither. He went and saw and was conquered. An aged Brahmin surrounded by a host of devotees offered up their prayers. The meditative soul of the visitor was enraptured, and in his ecstasy he forgot his mission altogether. The royal treasure with him was spent in the ceremony of his initiation and in the building of a Siva temple. He lived the life of a Yogi. His followers reported the matter to the king whose ire knew no bounds and who immediately sent for his Prime Minister. The defaulting minister obeyed the summons and told the king that the horses would be brought home on the auspicious Mula day in the month of Auvani (August-September). Through divine grace very fine horses arrived on the appointed day, and, when examined, they were good in every point. Night fell and the horses were stabled. All night terrible howls were heard, and the dawn discovered a pack

* Continuation of the series on Tamil Saints begun in the April Number.

of jackals that had devoured the royal stud. The king's disappointment was very keen, and the minister's woes began. He was harassed in every way: he was ordered to stand in the sun at mid-day. The howling pack too vanished. The royal displeasure was unbounded. Just at this juncture the Vaigai flooded all of a sudden. It was construed as an act of divine displeasure at the infliction on the saint. The king soon perceived the hand of God in the whole affair and recognised the greatness of his minister. So he let him go unmolested any further. The devotee went from shrine to shrine and sang hymns. His travels extended from Thondaimandalam in the North to Ceylon or the island of Lanka in the South. In the Ila Nadu he came across Buddhists and longed to establish the superiority of Saivism in the land. The parties agreed to meet at Chidambaram. The Ceylon king was accompanied by his dumb daughter and the Chola king witnessed the heated controversy between the Buddhist *guru* and the Saiva propagandist. The Buddhist congregation was dumfounded, and the dumb princess met all the arguments of the Buddhist high-priest. The Thiruchalal hymn embodies it. The Ceylon arrivals embraced Saivism in a body. Thereafter the saint lived a life of utter renunciation till he paid his debt to nature at the sacred town of Chidambaram. According to the legend, he went to the temple accompanied by a large concourse of people who had questioned him about the esoteric meaning of his Kovai (Thirukovaiyar) and was seen no more. At the time of his death he had hardly completed his thirty-second year.

In this brief account of the saint's life two things will strike the modern reader as passing strange, to wit, the minister's dereliction of duty and the divine dishonesty in the jackal miracle. Duty is the stern daughter of the voice of God, as Wordsworth says. When a higher duty calls, the lower is surrendered, and worldly wisdom, for the lack of which one human being finds fault with another, proves to be the vanity of vanities—*vanitas vanitatem*. The jackal miracle has nothing to do with the story of the minister's life, and some ingenious myth-monger has woven it dexterously into his life-story. 'When bale is next God is next' is a common saying. In the Marutha country jackals abound, and the great metamorphoser, one of whose sports is the miracle of the Jackal conversion (Ahaval II, Thiru *Emaravu*, stanza I and Anandamalai stanza 7), probably used it to awaken the spiritual nature of the king, all money

and passion forespent. The dumb princess finding speech in the twinkling of an eye is a case of physico-psychological development. Certain organs and powers mature late, and their maturity depends on some psychological moment, as when the disputation was keen and hottest between the rival religious representatives which the princess was witnessing. The religiously inclined attribute this sudden flowering of the latent power to the grace of God, as God fulfils himself in many ways inscrutable by human kind.

As a poet Manickavachakar holds a high place in the roll of Tamil singers. The large use of the viruttam metre, a metre foreign to the Tamil language and introduced into it at a later time, against the indigenous metres—ahaval and venba—used only in six of the fifty-two lyrics that compose the Psalter, proves that the singer belongs to a transition time between the giant lards of old and the flashy idle singers of the empty day. The imagery used is partly Vedic and partly mythologic—an incongruous mixture sometimes of both. The rhythm of the verses is sweet, melodious, and entrancing, and it has passed into a proverb that he whose heart does not melt at the hearing of Manickavachakar's lyrics will melt at none.

A key to the esoteric significance of each lyric has been furnished, and the orthodox Saivites appreciate the exposition of the under-currents of high thought and noble philosophy—Maya and its destruction, karma and its fruits, bhakti and its virtues, incarnation and evolution, divine grace and moksha. *Pottri Thiru Ahaval* deals with the genesis of the world and describes a pilgrim's progress. *Thirupalli Eluchi* or 'the morning hymn' is a trumpet-call to the awakening man to devote his reconquered energies and apply his renewed and refreshed vigour to the attainment of salvation. *Thiru puzalli* or the 'Sacred Lily' treats of the 'release from the dark world of maya' and of the ways in which such a consummation can be had.

According to the veteran Tamil scholar of England who lived and died in his devotion to Tamil literature, "Manickavachakar was a strange mixture of St. Paul and St. Francis of Assisi (not without something of St. Dominic)."

"This day in Thy mercy unto me thou didst drive
Away the darkness, and stand as the Rising Sun,
Of this thy way of rising—there being naught

Else but Thou—I thought without thought.
I drew nearer and nearer to Thee, *wearing away*
Atom by atom, till I was one with Thee,
O Siva! dweller in the great Holy Shrine."

APPAR.

An elder contemporary of St. Jnana Sambandha and one who is known to us by the endearing appellative of 'Father' used by the precocious Sisu, Marulneekiar (the Dispeller of Darkness)—that was the name given by his parents Pugalanar and Mathiniar—was a Vollala of Thiru Amoor in the modern district of Cuddalore. Thirunavukkarasu, or Vakisa, was a God-given name and signifies 'the lord of the tongue' or the 'master of speech.' By the heretics he was called *Dharmasena*, the general of the dharmas.

Between the contemporaries and some time companions, there is a wide gulf in many respects. St. Sambanda had a brief spell of existence whereas St. Appar was an octogenarian. If the former was a self-assertor, the latter was a quiet humble man; if the former was a dogmatist, the latter was a silent philosopher; if the former was endowed with divine wisdom, the latter had his wealth of experience and divine grace; if the former prided on his *muttamil* scholarship, the latter earned the title of 'Vakisa.'

The main events of the life of St. Appar are the sisterly devotion, his apostasy, his bitter persecution, his re-conversion, his journeys and miracles, and his final exit.

When his only sister Tilatha Vadhiar was a budding virgin, her father shuffled off his mortal coil and her mother ascended the funeral pyre. The young Marulneekiar, her child-brother, was her sole comfort and consolation; and when her affianced groom, Kalipagaiyar, a Pallava general, died a heroic death in the battlefield, the virgin would commit *Sati*, but her tender thoughts for her orphan brother saved her from the catastrophe. She devoted her life to the service of God and to the well-being of her brother. In his early years he fell into the hands of the Jains in the monastery of Pataliputra and embraced the new cult with all his heart. He turned out a savant in it and was dubbed Dharma Sena. He enjoyed all the privileges of his high position and forgot his home and his disconsolate sister. He probably had a royal bride and had a full quiver of them. His family life as a Jain was not wholly happy, and in his chagrin and vexation his thoughts turned homeward. He conceived the greatest contempt for the ascetic life lived by the Shamanas. When he was in a dilemma, the prayers

of his sister were heard, and Dharma Sena fell a prey to severe colic, a foul disease, which made him feel that he was spread on a rack and tortured. The Jain monks tried their level best to cure him of the dire malady but did it in vain. The young man then thought of his sister and her god, and sent a secret messenger to her with his thousand apologies and regrets and imploring her to take him back. Blood is thicker than water. Her affection overcame her. The brother was taken into her loving care, and, by the Grace of God and by her kind tendance, was relieved of his intestinal pains. He had all the enthusiasm of a convert and dedicated his life to the service of God. But the Jains would not let him go. The Pallava king Kadava was a Jain, and the Jain apostate was hauled up before him for his desertion. Bitter persecution began. Among the tortures inflicted on him were shutting him up for a se'nnight in a burning kiln, administering poison, laying him before a rut elephant, and exposing him to the perils of the sea with a stone tied to his body. All these ordeals he stood with a bold heart, relying on the power and grace of Siva. The hymns uttered on these momentous occasions are redolent of fervour and love and absolute resignation to the will of God. Their melody is as unsurpassed as the singer's devotion. They contain verses that have become familiar quotations. 'Namarkum kudi alloam namanai anjoam' 'Namanjuvathu yathontumillai anja varuvathu millai. The 'Masilveenai' hymn, the 'Sunnaven Santhana' hymn, and the 'Namachivaya' padigam are the most popular of the songs uttered by the saint. When he came ashore at Turupathiripuliyur, New Town, Cuddalore, he addressed the deity as mother, father, and sister, and his heart overflowed with love and gratitude for his rescue. He then resided with his sister at Thiruvathigai Virattanam and partook of her daily duties in the temple. The Pallava king who knew that all his trials had ended in a fiasco felt the greatness of the sufferer and turned a worshipper of Siva. He pulled down the Jain monasteries in his region and used the materials in constructing a magnificent temple at Gunathara Vicharam. There ended the chapter of bigotry and intolerance and bitter religious persecution.

"As fire in wood, as ghee in milk,
The Lum'nous One lies hid within,

Sanskrit, partly owing to the prevalence of heresy in the land and partly to the narrow prejudice and selfishness of the privileged custodians of the 'divine' language. Thanks to the unceasing labours of the heretic Jains, the exclusive spirit gave way and the sacred lore was thrown open to all irrespective of caste, creed, or colour. It proved beyond a doubt that every language including Tamil was 'divine,' and the Divine Word was acceptable to God. The shutting of the gates by the child prodigy symbolises the conservative tendency in all men to preserve their own free from degeneration and decay. The next incident connected with the loving and loveable Appudhi serves a double purpose. It shows the popularity of Appar in his own day for his charity and pure life, the absence of the sectarian spirit in those days, and, above all, the touch of nature, selfless and loving, that makes the whole world kin. The good heart of the parent and the pure life of the saint manifested themselves in the earnestness with which he wrought for the restoration of life to the dead child. His resolute march to Mount Kailas discovers the strength and wholeheartedness of his devotion despite his frail constitution and the spirit of daring adventure in the perilous northern regions. In short, Appar was a champion of cosmopolitanism in life, in religion, and in language-learning, and laid stress on love of God and man against all rituals as the opener of the portals of eternity. In one of his extempore effusions at Thiruvottiyur, who cannot find God has found a happy expression :

"With the boat of Manas and the oar of
[Bhuddhi,

With anger laden one crosses the raging sea,
He founders against the rock of passion and
[knows not God.

Grant me the wisdom to know Thee, O Lord
[of Thiruvottiyur."

After his southern tour to Rameswaram and other holy places, he stayed at Thirupukalur, where he poured his fervid love in many a sacred song, overcame many a temptation, performed his sacred duties with an unflinching heart and held fast to the feet of the most merciful God. His last hymn in that locality is most pathetic and was almost the swan-song of the saint. It begins with 'Yennukane Yensolli Yennukeno' and closes with 'To thy foot alone, I make my way, O blessing Lord dwelling at Pumpukalur.' Evidently the saint lived a life of celibacy after his reconversion, and his poetry is silent on the point. His long

life of piety and purity is a lesson to many a seeker after God.* He knew and expressed the transitoriness and emptiness of things mundane, and the everlastingness and enduringness of life spiritual, and showed by precept and example how to live an ideal higher life.

"Who is father and who mother, who brother and sister, who the wife and son? Whence came you? Where are you going? How false? Don't delight.

O men, hear you my simple word! He whose crown with shining snake and crescent moon is adorned,

My father is. His name, Namasivaya, uttering Heaven sure you reach."

More than three hundred hymns go by his name, and they have been arranged in three orders, forming the fourth, fifth and sixth thirumurais. The first collection comprises Thiru Nerisai and Thiru Virutham, the second Kurunthogai, and the last Thiruthandakam. Though he was not a great metrist as Saint Sambandha, all his hymns are noted for their choice diction, their elevating sentiments, and their melting strains. More than all his soul-outpourings in touching verses was his chequered life, innocent and pure, in which his soul passed from the hell of Jainism through the purgatory of his ancestral faith to the heaven of bliss.

Appar's hymns are often called the 'written Vedas' as distinguished from the Vedas orally delivered, and are said to be divinely inspired or 'Arul vakku.' His Devaram as a whole gives us a vivid picture of the past and is a Saivaitic code. Divine worship was never done by a proxy. Bhaktas and non-bhaktas formed the two races of mankind, and birth and calling had nothing to do with the rank of a man. Even the Pulaya with a loathesome body and slaying the cow for his meat would be honored were he a devout worshipper of Sivam. Though he was hard upon heresy (Thiru Arur Proverbs), he seldom refrained from giving the devil his due. He liked the non-killing doctrine of the Jains but condemned their materialism and atheism and their filthy habits. The love of the family forms the subject of 'Thiru nilai kudi' from the pen of an ideal ascetic. As a Vellala his verses are replete with his agricultural lore, and metaphors and similes from the cultivation of fields crop up at every turn as copiously as from the arts of navigation and war. His poems preach optimism, but never pessimism or misanthropism. Fatalism is shunned. "Vithiyudentu solla vendavé Nenjamé"

(Thiru Neithanam 2). A Saivite should prefer a simple vegetarian diet composed of rice, milk, curds, ghee and vegetables, eat it in moderation, and be convivial. He should be neat and clean and may use flowers (jasmine, lotus, violets) and perfumes (the sandal paste). He should help beggars lest he go to hell. "Irappavarkku Eaya vaithar Yēpavarkku Arulum Vaitthar, Karappavar Thank-attellam kadu Narakangal Vaitthar" (Thiruvaiyaru, i. 10). He should make a comparative study of religions (Athi Puranam, ii, 4) and of languages (Thiru A'rai Vadathali, ii. 9). Like Sivam, he should be merciful, loving, forgiving, sympathetic, pure, innocent, prayerful and hospitable (Thirukantappur Thiru Thandakam, 2-4). He should be courteous and polite to those from whom he differs and seek divine help at all times. Besides being a code for the Saivite, his *Devaram* is a repertory of his experiences and observations of nature. The mountain and the sea appealed to Appar most powerfully, and the musician responded to them most ecstatically. The trees and their verdure, the minstrels on their boughs, the

beasts that roam, the rise and course of rivers and the waterfalls, had a fascination for him. The beach, the horizon, the slowly emerging ships, the wet sands, the tiny mollusca, the surging waves, the sea gulls, the fisher folk with their oysters—all these attracted him most. (Thiruvallampuram, Thiruvottiyur, Thiruk kalumalam lyrics). These things interested him, not for their own sake, but because they offered suggestions of sacredness and divine immensity, power, and grace. In short, the short and sweet and impromptu hymns of Appar, treasuring up high and noble sentiments in apparently simple language, make a goodly volume of beautiful poetry and form the scripture of the Saivite for his daily study and prayer and for divination in all temporal concerns of great consequence.

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To Jeth

BY ELIZABETH ARNOLD.

(IN "THOUGHTS BY THE GANGES.")

All hail to thee oh Jeth, I fear thee not !
 Thy burning rays I welcome and salute !
 Most dreaded art by those from foreign skies
 In which the sun is timider than here,
 Oh Jeth in Bharatvarsh !

Thou'lt sear away the sin and all that's foul,
 Thou'lt burn to hidden corners in this land !
 Thou'lt pierce the whole—and purify or kill !—
 I greet thee—and I fear thee not,
 Oh Jeth in Bharatvarsh !

So with my arms outstretched I welcome thee !
 Thou'lt spare me not—but burn and make me pure ;
 That so I may his cleanest vessel be,
 And one from which the self is burnt—
 Oh Jeth in Bharatvarsh !

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN INDIA

The following Resolution on Local Self-Government has been issued by the Government of India :—

HISTORICAL RETROSPECT.

Local self-government as a conscious process of administrative devolution and political education dates, outside presidency towns, from the financial reforms of Lord Mayo's government. Consultative committees had indeed been appointed in various towns in 1860, and measures were taken in 1864 and following years to give effect to the recommendations of the report of the Royal Army Sanitary Commission, which was published in 1863, but no comprehensive scheme was introduced until the years following 1870. Legislation affecting several provinces was then undertaken. Lord Ripon's government in 1882 carried still further the principles of local self-government with the object, by measures cautiously but substantially progressive, of inducing the people themselves to undertake, as far as might be and, subject to necessary control from without, the management of their own local affairs, and of developing and creating, if need be, a capacity for self-help in respect of all matters that had not, for administrative reasons, to be retained in the hands of a representative of Government. Various Acts were passed, by which the elective principle, financial independence and the reduction of official control were given a wide extension. In two resolutions Nos. 1/148-164, dated the 24th October 1896, and Nos. 18-37, dated the 20th August 1897, respectively, Lord Elgin's government again reviewed the subject and laid down further conditions of progress. Important principles have, from time to time, been considered by the Government of India in connection with the revision of local self-government Acts and otherwise, and recently the whole field of policy has, in their survey of Indian administration, been ably and exhaustively reviewed by the Royal Commission upon Decentralization.

SUBSTANTIAL PROGRESS.

2. The Governor-General in Council is glad to be assured by the report of the Commission and the opinions of local Governments and Administrations upon it, that the results have on the whole justified the policy out of which local self-government arose. The degree of success varies from province to province and from one part of a province to another, but there is definite and satisfactory evidence of the growth of a feeling of good citizenship, particularly in the towns. The spread of education is largely responsible for the quickening of a sense of responsibility and improvements in the machinery. In certain provinces, beneficial results have followed the elaboration of a system of local audit. On all sides there are signs of vitality and growth.

FUTURE GENERAL POLICY.

3. The obstacles in the way of realising completely the ideals which have prompted action in the past are still, however, by no means inconsiderable. The smallness and inelasticity of local revenues, the difficulty of devising further forms of taxation, the indifference still prevailing in many places towards all forms of public life, the continued unwillingness of many Indian gentlemen to submit to the troubles, expense and inconveni-

ences of election, the unfitness of some of those whom these obstacles do not deter, the prevalence of sectarian animosities, the varying character of the municipal area, all these are causes which cannot but impede the free and full development of local self-government. The growing demand among the educated classes in towns for greater efficiency, involving more direct expert control, in matters affecting public health and education, is a further influence of a different character. A similar tendency, it may be observed, is discernible in England and in other European countries, the Governments of which have shown a growing disposition to place on central authorities the duty of stimulating and encouraging local bodies in cases of default or deficiency on their part, and to give to the former powers of intervention and, in case of need, of actual supersession of the latter. These and similar considerations indicate the need for caution in delegating powers to non-official bodies, when they are not as yet adapted nor prepared for them. But on the whole the Government of India declare unhesitatingly in favour of a general policy of further progress, limited only by such conditions as local circumstances may dictate. Uniformity, even were it attainable, would be undesirable as tending to monotony, lifelessness and discouragement of new experiments. But, in fact, any attempt to exact uniformity in local administration would be foredoomed to failure. In each province, sometimes in each part of a province, the administrative system has grown up on lines of its own with reference to local needs and the wishes and abilities of the people. On a review of all the circumstances, the Government of India have decided to accept in almost every case the conclusion of the local Government or Administration as to the degree of progress possible at the present time. But in the more backward provinces in particular, it is their conviction that there is room for advance, and that the aim to be steadily pursued is abstention from interference in detail and increased reliance on the non-official element in local bodies.

REFORMS ACCEPTED BY LOCAL GOVERNMENTS.

4. Local Governments and Administrations in general are prepared to advance in the direction of the main recommendations of the Commission. They propose in varying degrees to expand the electoral element in the constitution of local bodies, to extend the employment of non-official chairmen in municipalities, to allow local bodies more ample control over budgets and freer powers of reappropriation, to concede increased authority to local bodies over establishments and to relax existing restrictions in regard to outside sanction for expenditure on works of importance. These changes will mark a real and immediate extension of the principles of local self-Government.

5. The Government of India now propose to state the principal conclusions that have been reached after full discussion in the public press, in debates of the Legislative Councils, and in consultation with local Governments and in certain matters, with His Majesty's Secre-

tary of State, on the questions that arise respecting (1) towns, (2) districts, (3) villages or other small local areas, in other words, in relation to (1) municipal boards; (2) district and sub-district boards, and (3) panchayats or other unions. In each case they will consider the constitution of the local body, its ability to tax and its powers in regard to its budget and its establishment. Finally, they will deal with the recommendations of the Commission in connection with presidency towns and Rangoon.

MUNICIPAL BOARDS: ELECTIVE MAJORITY.

6. The Commission recommended that municipal boards should ordinarily be constituted on the basis of a substantial elective majority, and that nominated members should be limited to a number sufficient to provide for the due representation of minorities and official experience. This recommendation has already been adopted in several provinces and is generally accepted by local Governments and the Government of India, subject to the proviso that the principle should in places, where its success is doubtful, be introduced gradually, and after experiment in selected municipalities.

CHAIRMEN.

7. The Commission also proposed that the municipal chairman should usually be an elected non-official, that Government officers should not be allowed to stand for election, and that where a nominated chairman might still be required he should be an official. . . .

NON-OFFICIAL CHAIRMEN.

8. The majority of local Governments are in favour of substituting, so far as possible, non-official for official chairmen, and the Government of India are in full sympathy with the proposal. The increasing burden of administration, apart from other considerations, renders it desirable that the district officer should be relieved of the executive control of municipal bodies. The Governor-General in Council recognises, however, that the change must be made gradually, and that in the absence of suitable candidates, it may not be possible to make it finally once for all in particular places. He agrees with the opinion expressed in several quarters that discretion should be reserved to a local Government to nominate a non-official as chairman. Many gentlemen of influence, well fitted to be chairmen of boards, are not prepared to offer themselves for election, and insistence on election as the only alternative to the nomination of an official would unnecessarily narrow the field of choice. Nor does it appear necessary to prohibit boards under any circumstances from electing an official as their chairman. It may be desirable, however, to require the election of an official as chairman to be confirmed by the Commissioner, or even higher authority.

THE BOMBAY SYSTEM IN LARGE MUNICIPALITIES.

9. The Commission suggested that some of the largest cities should adopt the system in force in Bombay city. Where there is an elected chairman, who is the official mouthpiece of the corporation as a whole, the executive administration, however, vesting in a full-time nominated official subject to the control of the corporation and of a standing committee thereof. In the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901, also there are provisions under which a chief officer can be appointed by a city municipality, on its own initiative or at the instance of the Governor in Council. The Governor in Council may also appoint an exe-

cutive officer known as the Municipal Commissioner for any municipal district which contains one hundred thousand inhabitants, or for any other municipal district on the application of the municipality, provided that such application has been previously supported by not less than two-thirds of the whole body of councillors. A Municipal Commissioner has in some respects more extensive power than a Chief Officer. Under this arrangement the direction of the general policy of a municipality vests in the whole body of councillors, while the executive power, with certain reservations, vests in the Municipal Commissioner. The municipal committee may cause him to furnish any returns and reports on matters appertaining to municipal administration and they retain financial control. The Chief Officer or Municipal Commissioner is not removable except by order of the Governor in Council or by the vote of three-fourths of the whole number of councillors. These officers exercise certain executive powers specifically conferred on them by the Municipal Act, and such other powers as may be delegated to them under the provisions of the Act; and the Governor in Council may require that they shall be invested with any powers which can be lawfully delegated. The system works well in Bombay. The Government of India do not desire to press for its adoption in provinces where it may not be suited to the local conditions. They are, however, of opinion that it has the advantages of ensuring a continuous and strong executive administration by an efficient paid staff, while maintaining the corporate control and activity of the municipal board. It is in fact not dissimilar to the system in force in England. They commend it to local Governments as a means of overcoming at any rate in large cities, the difficulties inherent in the introduction of the important changes contemplated especially when non-official chairmen are busy professional men. In smaller towns they suggest that the object aimed at might be attained by the wider delegation of executive functions to responsible secretaries, engineers and health officers and that power to enforce such delegation might be secured by legislation.

FINANCIAL RESOURCES.

10. The aggregate income of 701 municipalities in existence at the close of 1912-1913 (excluding the presidency towns and Rangoon) amounted to £3,282,845 (Rs. 4,92,42,675) apart from loans, sales of securities and other extraordinary receipts or an average of about £4,683 (Rs. 70,245) a year.

TAXATION.

11. The taxes, tolls and fees which may ordinarily be levied by municipalities are provided for in the municipal enactments in force in the different provinces. They are imposed in most cases with the previous sanction of the local Government concerned and within the limits laid down in the Acts. They usually take one or other of the following forms:—

- (1) Tax on arts, professions, trades, callings, offices and appointments.
- (2) Tax on buildings, lands and holdings.
- (3) Water, drainage, sewage, conservancy, scavenging and lighting tax.
- (4) Tax on vehicles, boats, palanquins and animals kept for use or used within municipal limits.
- (5) Tax on circumstances and property.
- (6) Tax on private menials and domestic servants.

(7) Tax on private markets.

(8) Octroi on animals or goods or both, brought within municipal limits for consumption or use.

(9) Tolls on vehicles and animals entering municipal limits, and tolls on ferries, bridges and metalled roads.

(10) Fees on the registration of cattle sold within municipal limits and of carts and other vehicles.

The taxes provided for in the Acts vary, however, in the different provinces, and not all these taxes are actually levied in any one province. Any tax other than those specified in the Acts, which is proposed to be levied, ordinarily requires and should continue to require the sanction of the Governor-General in Council.

12. The most important taxes now in force are octroi duties, levied principally in Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and the North-West Frontier Province, and the tax on houses and lands which holds the chief place in the other provinces as well as in Bombay city.

OCTROI AND THE TERMINAL TAX.

13. The octroi system in the existing circumstances of the country has certain obvious advantages. As a tax octroi is productive and grows with the prosperity of the town. Its imposition is sanctioned by immemorial usage, and the people are habituated to the system by long custom. The tax is usually paid in small amounts and the effect of the payment is not generally felt as a burden. On the other hand, there is no doubt that it provides constant opportunities for fraud, delay and oppression owing to the necessity of entrusting large discretionary powers to a subordinate agency, that it is expensive to collect and wasteful and, finally, that in many places it constitutes a serious burden on trade in general, and particular on through trade, notwithstanding the provision made for refunds. On the recommendation of a strong representative committee and the local Government, the Government of India have sanctioned an experiment in the United Provinces, which involves (a) the substitution of direct taxation for octroi in the smaller towns, and (b) the application to a large number of other towns in which conditions are suitable of the system of a terminal tax, or light transit dues on imports or exports, subject to no refunds. The Government of the United Provinces considers that some of the main benefits of such a system, and in particular a reduction of the high cost of collection, can only be secured if the tax is collected through the agency of the railway companies, who should be adequately remunerated for their services. The Government of India are prepared to facilitate negotiations to this end. The Government of Bombay have assented to the tentative replacement of octroi by a terminal tax in a few municipalities selected from those desirous of making the experiment. The question is under consideration or experiment in other provinces also. The Government of India while adhering to the principle that municipal taxation should not operate, so far as can be avoided, as a transit duty on through trade, are prepared to concede that a light terminal tax with no refunds may in practice prove less burdensome to through trade than the octroi system as hitherto administered, provided that the following conditions are observed, viz., (1) that the terminal tax, wherever promised, should be substantially lower in its rates than the octroi which it places; (2) that it should be limited to places where there are special grounds for applying it, which must be adequately demon-

strated; (3) that it should be regarded as facilitating the transition to a system in which direct taxation will form an increasingly important factor, and not as an elastic means of progressively increasing the resources of municipalities apart from normal development due to increase of traffic, and (4) that it should not be adjusted with the primary object of compensating municipalities for the loss of octroi.

HOUSE AND LAND TAX.

14. The house and land tax is the chief source of municipal income in Madras, Bengal, Burma, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam, and it has been imposed with some success in portions of Northern India. This tax, however, is difficult of assessment in many places, where it is the custom to own rather than to rent dwelling houses because in such cases the house affords no indication of the financial status of the owner. Many aristocratic but impoverished families live in large buildings which are merely relics of vanished prosperity, while the rich trader often remains content with the humble dwelling in which he was born. There is, however, a growing tendency on the part of the professional and trading class to spend a larger proportion of their incomes on securing sanitary accommodation, so that it is reasonable to anticipate that the house tax revenue will gradually expand, and will generally be contributed by those best able to pay. The technical and administrative difficulties of assessment have in places been overcome by entrusting the preparation and periodic revision of registers to outside agency.

TAX ON PROFESSIONS AND TRADES.

15. A tax on professions and trade yields a considerable revenue in certain provinces, e.g., £17,299 (Rs. 2,58,591) in Madras; £1,697 (Rs. 70,465) in Bengal; £14,106 (Rs. 2,11,599) in the United Provinces, and £4,869 (Rs. 73,036) in the Central Provinces. It has also been imposed in some towns in Northern India. But neither it nor the tax on circumstances and property is likely to yield a large revenue and there is always danger lest local taxation of this kind encroach on the field of imperial taxation.

TAX ON PILGRIMS.

16. In Benares there is a form of terminal tax which is imposed with certain exceptions on passengers coming to or leaving that station by rail. There is a radius of exemption beyond which the tax is levied and it is collected by the railway companies as a surcharge on railway fares. A similar tax is also in force in Calcutta which is levied by the Calcutta Improvement Trust and is collected from passengers entering or leaving that city by rail or steamer. In Hardwar, Ajudhia and Thanewar there is a tax on pilgrims and other persons who enter the limits of those municipalities. The tax at Hardwar is levied on railway passengers throughout the year while that at the other two municipalities is imposed only on the occasion of certain special fairs. In Bombay a pilgrim tax may be levied under section 59 (b) (x) of the District Municipal Act, III of 1901.

POWERS OF TAXATION.

17. The Commission were of opinion that municipalities should have full liberty to impose or alter taxation within the limits laid down by the municipal laws but that the sanction of an outside authority to any increase in taxation should be acquired where the law did not

prescribe a maximum rate. Subject to the general control of the Government of India over the principles to be followed, the sanction of the local Government is at present necessary to every proposal for the imposition of taxation. A maximum rate is prescribed in the Madras, Bengal and Burma Acts, and in the Punjab, United Provinces and Central Provinces, so far as regard the tax on buildings and lands; but none is laid down in Bombay. The recommendations of the Commission do not command general assent. It is pointed out, for instance, that a municipality might reduce its taxation without due consideration to the needs of the administration and the security of loans. The Government of India, while recognizing the force of such objections, are, on the whole, in general sympathy with the Commission's recommendations. They think, however, that power to vary any tax might be reserved by such local Governments as are unable to accept in full the recommendations of the Commission and that in the case of indebted municipalities the previous sanction of higher authority should be required to any alteration of taxation.

SUBVENTIONS BY GOVERNMENT.

18. Municipal finance has shown a marked expense during the last decade. The total income of 701 municipalities in 1912-1913 was £3,282,845 (Rs. 4,92,42,675) as compared with £1,844,081 (Rs. 2,76,61,215) for 753 municipalities in 1902-1903. Contributions from Government have materially assisted this expansion. Since 1911, the Government of India have made grants amounting to £3,076,466 (Rs. 4,61,47,000), of which £368,200 (Rs. 55,23,000) are recurring for urban sanitation. Municipalities have also received their share--the exact figure is not easily ascertainable--of the large educational grants made by the Government of India since 1911, amounting to about £3,987,800 (Rs. 5,98,17,000), of which £816,666 (Rs. 1,24,00,000) are recurring. Municipal boards have been relieved of all charges for the maintenance of police within municipal limits. In almost every province the recommendation that municipalities should be relieved from financial responsibility for famine relief and should receive assistance from Government in the case of severe epidemics has been already given effect to or the principle has been accepted.

There is a growing demand on every side for improvements and it is not possible for all municipalities to finance large schemes of water supply and drainage without substantial aid. Such aid has been freely given by the Imperial and local Governments. The power of the Government to make grant is, however, limited and financial assistance of this nature cannot be expected unless the rate-payers are prepared to bear a reasonable proportion of the burden. Where, however, further taxation is not possible the Government of India trust that municipalities will bear in mind the possibility of supplementing taxation by development of municipal property, so as to ensure the best possible returns and by maintaining the principle that special services such as the supply of water, electric lighting, etc., should, as far as possible, pay for themselves.

The Government of India have also accepted a further recommendation of the Commission, namely, that assistance may legitimately be given by Government poorer municipalities which, without it, would be unable to carry on the normal standard of administration required from them. In such cases, the Government of India agree with the Commission that assist-

ance can best be given when it is given by a general recurring grant-in-aid, which should be at the discretion of the local Government and met from its own resources.

PAYMENT AND CONTROL OF SERVICES.

19. The Commission proposed that if a municipal or rural board has to pay for a service it should control it and that where it is expedient that the control should be largely in the hands of Government, the service should be a provincial one. The Government of India while not prepared to accept the proposal in full have approved it in a somewhat modified form. They consider that charges should be remitted in cases where a local body contributes to Government for services inherent in the duty of supervision and control by Government officers, or for services which cannot expediently be performed except by Government agency. For example, Government may properly cease to charge for clerical establishment in the offices of supervision and control, or for the collection of District cesses which it is clearly expedient to realise along with Government revenue. On this principle they have made assignments which will relieve both municipalities and rural boards of payments amounting to £40,000 (Rs. 6,00,000) a year approximately.

TRAMWAY CESS.

20. It was suggested by the Commission that municipalities should be empowered to levy a special rate for the construction or promotion of tramways. Local Governments generally are doubtful as to the value of the proposal. The Government of India will, however, be prepared to consider any practical proposal to this end, which they may receive.

BUDGETS AND FINANCIAL CONTROL.

21. Commenting on the mixture control exercised in some provinces over municipal finance, the Commission recommended that municipalities should have a free hand with regard to their budgets; the only check required should, they thought, be the maintenance of a minimum standing balance to be prescribed by the local Government. They acknowledge that relaxed control might lead to mistakes and mismanagement, but they were of opinion that municipal bodies could attain adequate financial responsibility only by the exercise of such powers and by having to bear the consequences of their errors. Further checks would be provided by the control which local Governments would exercise over loans, and by the power which should be reserved to compel a municipality to discharge its duties in case of default. The system proposed is stated to be in force in the Bombay Presidency where, however, no minimum balance is required by law. The Government of the United Provinces accept the recommendations subject to the condition that Commissioners should pass and that Government should see the budgets of indebted municipalities. The Punjab Government also agrees subject to the proviso that the budget of an indebted municipality should be forwarded to the Government for information. The Government of Bengal are prepared to introduce the change experimentally in certain selected municipalities. They intend also to issue general instructions to Commissioners in this province to abstain from interference and details and to restrict their supervision to securing (1) a minimum closing balance, (2) provision for the service of loans, (3) the observance of the provisions of the Act or statutory rules and of any standing orders of Government. Other Governments concede certain relaxations of existing rules.

The Government of India accept these opinions for the present, but they nevertheless regard the recommendations of the Commission as expressing a policy to be steadily kept in view and gradually realised.

ESTIMATES FOR PUBLIC WORKS.

22. The Commission proposed that the existing restrictions on municipalities which require outside sanction for works estimated to cost more than a certain amount should be removed but that Government should scrutinize and sanction estimates of projects to be carried out from loan funds. The majority of the local Government are prepared to relax the existing rules in the direction of giving more freedom to municipal boards. The Government of India are in favour of extended freedom subject where necessary to proper precautions against extravagant and ill-considered projects. They are content, however, to leave the precise extent of relaxation to be determined by local Governments. One important factor in this connection will be the quality of the professional agency available in the various boards. In their Resolution No. 1019-A, dated the 10th November 1914, promulgating rules relating to the grant of loans to local bodies under the Local Authorities Loans Act, 1914, the Government of India have emphasised the necessity for a proper scrutiny of projects financed with borrowed money, and they trust that the rules in question will be carefully observed.

ESTABLISHMENTS.

23. It was recommended by the Commission that the degree of outside control over municipal establishments should be relaxed, that the appointment of Municipal Secretaries or other chief executive officers, of engineers and health officers, where these existed, should require the sanction of the local Government in the case of cities, and of the Commissioner elsewhere; and that the same sanction should be required for any alteration in the emoluments of these posts, and for the appointment and dismissal of the occupants. As regards other appointments, they proposed that the local Governments should lay down for municipal boards general rules in respect to such matters as leave, acting and travelling allowances, pensions or provident funds and maximum salaries, and that their sanction should be required for any deviation therefrom. Almost all local Governments have expressed their willingness to relax outside control over the appointment of the staff employed by local bodies. In Bombay, the system is generally that recommended by the Commission. In some other provinces, the existing rules give a free hand to municipalities, subject to outside control in the case of certain appointments. The Government of India while considering the Government control over other posts might reasonably relax, except the view that outside sanction should be required to the appointment or dismissal of secretaries, engineers and health officers, and they have already advised local Governments to take powers where these do not exist, to require a municipality to appoint a health officer and to veto the appointment of an unfit person. Such powers already exist in the Bombay Presidency and have recently been taken by legislation in Bengal. The Imperial and Provincial Government have given liberal grants to selected municipalities in order to establish a trained service of health officers and sanitary inspectors, the conditions of these grants being, as in England, such as will ensure the appointment of qualified men and reasonable security of tenure.

SPECIAL OUTSIDE CONTROL.

24. The Commission thought that the Collector should retain certain powers, given under the existing Acts, *e.g.*, the power to suspend in certain cases the operation of Municipal Resolutions and that the Commissioner should be able to require a municipality which had neglected a particular service to take such action as he may consider necessary. The local Governments generally and the Government of India are of opinion that special powers of outside control are necessary and should continue.

TOWN-PLANNING AND RELIEF OF CONGESTED AREAS.

25. The question of extending the powers of selected municipalities to enable them to relieve the pressure of population in congested areas, and to undertake schemes of orderly town-planning in order to provide for future needs, has been dealt with by the Government of India in paragraphs 43 and 44 of their Sanitary Resolution Nos. 888 908, dated the 23rd May 1914. A Town Planning Bill combining many original features with others derived from the latest English and Continental legislation has now been passed into law in the Bombay Presidency, and the Government of India will watch with deep interest the results of this experiment, which will, they trust, pioneer a fruitful expansion of municipal activities in India.

RURAL BOARDS (DISTRICT & SUB-DISTRICT.)

SUB-DISTRICT BOARDS.

26. The Commission desired that sub-district boards should be universally established and that they should be the principal agencies of rural board administration. They noted that there was a considerable body of evidence that the sub-district boards existing in Bombay, Bengal, Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces had not been efficient or successful bodies and this they attributed largely to the circumscription of their powers and resources. They thought that these boards should have adequate funds and a large measure of independence and that their jurisdiction should be so limited in area as to ensure local knowledge and interest on the part of the members, and be at the same time a unit well-known to the people. For this purpose they suggested the taluka or tahsil as a suitable unit. The system recommended by the Commission is in force in Madras where however the territorial jurisdiction is co-terminous with the revenue division. In Bombay the taluka board is universal and is the principal agency in rural board administration. In Bengal and in Bihar and Orissa the sub-district boards are merely the agents of the district boards and have restricted powers. The local Governments concerned deprecate such a reconstitution as would involve sapping the vitality of district boards while in entire agreement with the Commission that sufficient use has not hitherto been made of these bodies. In the Central Provinces, where also sub-district boards with limited powers exist, a scheme has been introduced for enlarging their scope by entrusting them with the management of minor public works, sanitation, water-supply, etc., and placing an adequate share of the district council funds at their disposal for these purposes. In Assam the rural boards have jurisdiction over sub-divisional areas, and perform the duties assigned elsewhere to district boards. The Governments of the United Provinces and the Punjab and Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province consider the scheme unsuitable.

in view of local conditions. Districts in Northern India are comparatively small and form an easily controlled unit, communications are good, and moreover under existing conditions in the provinces concerned it would be more difficult to secure competent boards in tahsils than in districts. The Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces considers, moreover, that there is every prospect of a steady advance in the reality and utility of district boards by a continuous and orderly development of the existing system of delegation to tahsildar sub-divisional committees. The Punjab Government favours the formation of sub-committees within a district board on a local basis. The Government of India accept the views of the several local Governments in regard to their own provinces.

ELECTIVE MAJORITY.

27. District and sub-district boards, in the opinion of the Commission, should contain a large preponderance of elected members, together with a nominated element, sufficient to secure the due representation of minorities and of official experience.

In the United Provinces, the number of nominated members on a district board cannot exceed one-third of the elected members, while in the Central Provinces the number of such members cannot exceed one-third of the total number. The Government of Madras are prepared to raise the proportion of elected members to two-thirds and one-half of the maximum strength on district and sub-district boards, respectively. In Bombay, the Governor in Council regards it as inadvisable, in present conditions, to provide for an elected majority on the boards. There is already a substantial majority of elected members both in district and sub-district boards in Bengal, and Bihar and Orissa. In the Punjab, the elective system has been applied to many districts and the local Government has expressed its readiness to extend it. The Chief Commissioner of Assam has adopted the principle of granting an elective majority. In the North-West Frontier Province, the change is not yet practicable owing to factional and tribal feeling. It will be seen that local Governments in general are in sympathy with the Commission's proposal.

CHAIRMEN.

28. The Commission were of opinion that an official should remain, as he usually is at present, chairman of every district and sub-district board. They considered that the removal of the district and sub-divisional officer from the presidency of rural boards would have the effect of dissociating them from the general interests of the district in such matters as roads, education, sanitation, etc., and would divorce them from healthy contact with instructed non-official opinion. They differentiated the circumstances of rural boards from those of municipalities, in that the latter are less connected with general district administration, that they have reached a higher level of political education and that the jurisdictional area is much smaller and more compact. All local Governments have accepted this view with which the Government of India are in agreement, though they will have no objections to non-official chairmen being retained where such exist, or appointed where a local Government or administration desires to make the experiment.

FINANCIAL RESOURCES.

29. The funds of district boards are mainly derived from a cess levied upon agricultural land over and above

the land revenue with which it is collected and not usually exceeding one anna in the rupee (1 per cent.) on the annual rent-value. Since 1905 this income has been specially supplemented by a Government contribution amounting to 25 per cent. of the then existing income. Besides this, special grants are frequently made to district boards by local Government. The total number of district and sub-district boards in 1912-1913 was 199 and 536, respectively, with an aggregate income of £3,787,219 (Rs. 5,68,08,292). In the same year they received specially large grants from the sums allotted by the Imperial Government for education and sanitation. Prior to 1913 the district boards of several provinces did not receive the whole of the land cess. For example, this cess in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa was divided into two parts, viz., the road cess and the public work cess. The district boards only enjoyed the benefits of the road cess, while the public works cess belonged of right to the local Government, which returned, however, a portion in the shape of discretionary grants. In other Provinces, e.g., the United Provinces, the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province, considerable deductions were made by the local Governments concerned from the cess for various purposes. In 1913 the Imperial Government made assignments to the local Governments concerned to enable them to hand over the entire net proceeds of the cess to the boards. The relief thus given amounted to £548,666 (Rs. 82,33,000) a year and the provinces which benefited were Bengal, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, and to a smaller extent the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province. The income of district boards in Bengal, the United Provinces and Bihar and Orissa has mainly by this measure been increased by 44.43 and 55 per cent., respectively, in the year 1913-1914. This notable expansion will enable them in future to undertake or develop many beneficent activities from which they have hitherto been debarred by lack of financial means. . . .

TAXATION.

30. It was the opinion of the Commission that district boards should not be empowered to raise the land cess beyond one anna in the rupee on the rent-value, as this would be an unpopular measure. Under present conditions any proposal to raise the limit imposed by the existing law would require the previous sanction of the Government of India. Such proposals would need the most careful consideration on the merits, and the Government of India do not consider it necessary for the present to make any pronouncement on the subject.

RAILWAY OR TRAMWAY CESS.

31. The Commission proposed to allow district boards to levy a special extra land cess of 3 pies in the rupee on the annual rent-value of land for the construction of light railways or tramways conditional on the approval of the tax by not less than three-fourths of the members of the board. This resolution would be subject to confirmation after a period of six months by an equal majority at a like meeting and to the sanction of the local Government. The Government of India, after consulting local Governments, have with the sanction of the Secretary of State empowered local Governments to undertake legislation, if they so desire, in accordance with the Commission's proposals. The scheme is to be commended from many points of view. It has an educative value

by associating local self-government with responsibility for taxation for local objects and it opens up great possibilities of economic development. The actual imposition of the tax will in many instances probably not be necessary, the power to impose it, if necessary, will be sufficient for purposes of guarantee. In a few districts in Bengal the ordinary resources of district boards have proved sufficient for the construction of railways within the limits of the district. The eminently satisfactory results, which have attended the construction of district board lines in the presidency of Madras, encourage the Government of India to hope that the financial results of carefully selected schemes will, in the course of a few years, materially strengthen the financial resources of district boards which are in a position to undertake the construction or guarantee of these lines. Legislation to carry out the proposal has already been undertaken in Assam and is under consideration in the Punjab. The Government of India trust that other local Governments will take steps to confer the necessary powers on the local authorities and that selected boards throughout the country will experiment on the lines suggested.

METHODS OF RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION.

32. There are two general methods by which district boards, which possess the necessary resources, may secure the construction of a railway within the limits of the district. A district board may wait until the surplus funds, which it has accumulated from the levy of a special cess or otherwise, are adequate to justify it in undertaking construction at its own costs, or it may decide to allow to a company floated for the special purpose of the construction of the proposed railway a firm guarantee on the capital paid up. In such cases in return for the guarantee, the district board will become entitled to a share of the surplus profits over a certain fixed percentage accruing from the working of the feeder railway. If the former method be adopted, it will usually be found convenient and economical to entrust the construction and working of the railway owned by the district board to the main line—whether worked by the State or by a Company—with which the district board railway connects. In the latter case, the Branch Line Company receiving the district boards guarantee may itself undertake construction and working, or may arrange for construction and working through the agency of the main line. The Government of India are of opinion that when a light railway using steam locomotives is projected outside urban limits, it will ordinarily be preferable to deal with the project as a railway under the Railways Act rather than as a tramway under the Tramways Act. In any event the sanction of the Railway Department is necessary in order to ensure that the project shall not conflict with others which that Department may have under their consideration, and the Railway Department will at all times, when so desired, endeavour to arrange suitable terms for construction and working on behalf of the district board, or on behalf of a Company which has received a district board guarantee. As a result of a recent reference from the Government of Madras, the Government of India have decided that when a district board has accumulated a sum which, though substantial, is sufficient to meet the entire cost of a railway project which a district board desires to carry out, there is no objection to the raising of a debenture loan on the security of the railway to be constructed and the potential resources which a district board possesses through the power to continue the levy of a railway cess. For the redemption of such

debentures a special sinking fund need not be accumulated. By this expedient a district board may become the owner of a district railway at a much earlier date than would formerly have been possible. A large field is thus offered for district board enterprise. This recent decision will, it is hoped, be of substantial assistance in accelerating the construction of local feeder railways outside the Imperial programme.

BUDGETS AND FINANCIAL CONTROL.

33. A further recommendation was that rural boards should be given full power to pass their budgets subject only to the maintenance of a prescribed minimum balance. The procedure recommended by the Commission is stated to be already in force in the Bombay Presidency. Other local Governments generally are not prepared to accede to this complete removal of restrictions although some of them propose some relaxation in the existing rules. The Government of India consider that the present restrictions on the powers of the boards with regard generally to budget expenditure should be gradually relaxed with due regard to local conditions and requirements. The fact that an official is almost invariably president of a rural board and that powers of inspection and control by certain officers of Government are provided under the Acts relating to rural boards should ordinarily in their opinion be sufficient safeguards against gross inefficiency or mismanagement.

ESTIMATES FOR PUBLIC WORKS.

34. The Commission also proposed that the existing stringent restrictions on rural boards with regard to estimates for public works should be removed. At present rural boards have to obtain outside sanction in respect to roads and other public works, the estimates of which involve any considerable amount, the limits varying for different provinces. In the opinion of the Government of India, which has the general support of local Governments, the grant to rural boards of full powers in the allotment of funds and the passing of estimates cannot for the present at least be conceded, but the extent of the necessary financial control might depend in the case of rural boards on the competence of the staff employed, and, where this varies it would not be desirable to lay down hard-and-fast rules for the whole provinces. In such cases district boards might be placed in different classes according to the staff employed. The Government of India accept the view of the Commission that in districts where there are sufficient works to justify the special appointment of a trained engineer, a district board which desires to entertain such an officer and can afford to pay him an adequate salary should be permitted to do so.

ESTABLISHMENTS.

35. Government of India have come to same conclusions in the case of establishments of rural boards as in the case of municipalities (paragraph 23 *supra*). They have recently, in their Sanitary Resolution, Nos. 828-908 dated the 23rd May 1914, expressed the opinion that the appointment of well-qualified and whole-time district sanitary officers to control and organise all sanitary arrangements and experiments in the district is one of the urgent needs of the present time.

SPECIAL OUTSIDE CONTROL.

36. Special powers of control over rural boards are vested in outside authorities under the existing Acts, and the Commission recommended that these should con-

tinues. The local Governments in general as well as the Government of India accept this view.

VILLAGE ORGANISATION—PANCHAYATS OR OTHER COMMITTEES.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

37. The Commission recommended the constitution and development of village panchayats possessed with certain administrative powers, with jurisdiction in petty civil and criminal cases, and financed by a portion of the land cess, special grants, receipts from village cattle pounds and markets, and small fees on civil suits. This proposal, favourably commended by the Government of India, who expressed their readiness to acquiesce in some form of permissive taxation, if need be, has in general been sympathetically received. The practical difficulties are, however, felt to be very great in many parts of India. The Government of Burma and the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces deprecate the introduction of a system which in their judgment is alien to the customs of the people and will not command public confidence. Other Governments are willing to experiment, but on different lines. The Punjab Government has already established panchayats for civil cases only and of a voluntary character. Sir Leslie Porter, when officiating as Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, expressed his willingness to entrust selected panchayats with criminal as well as civil jurisdiction. Madras Government are desirous of experimenting in the establishment of panchayats but consider that action should be confined for the present to the encouragement of voluntary self-contained organisms independent of statutory sanction and consisting of village elders conferring together for common village purposes. So far as judicial functions are concerned they are content to rely on the provisions of the Madras Village Panchayats Regulation, 1816, and the Madras Village Courts Act, 1888, which authorise the assembling of panchayats and the convening of village bench courts for the settlement of particular civil suits on the application of the parties and to encourage the operation of these enactments wherever practicable. The Governments of Bengal and of Behar and Orissa are of opinion that their existing laws sufficiently provide for the establishment of panchayats, with administrative duties, while powers to dispose of criminal cases could be given under the existing Acts dealing with these matters. The Chief Commissioner of Assam has expressed his readiness to develop village government, and the Local Self-Government Bill which has recently passed the Legislative Council of that province permits the constitution of village authorities, the grant of funds by local boards and from other sources, and the delegation of minor powers of local control. The whole question has now been raised again in the discussions contained in the report of the Bengal District Administration Committee, 1913-1914.

PANCHAYATS.

38. The Commission recognised that any policy of establishing panchayats would be the work of many years, would require great care and discretion, and much patience and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages. The Government of India desire that where any practical scheme can be worked out in co-operation with the people concerned, full experiment should be made on lines approved by the local Government or ad-

ministration concerned. Throughout the greater part of India the word "panchayat" is familiar. The lower castes commonly have voluntarily constituted panchayats to whom they allow quasi-judicial authority in social matters. The more artificial administrative committees such as chaukidari panchayats, local fund unions, and village sanitation and education committees, and, in places even village panchayats, already exist. The spread of co-operative societies and the distribution of Government advances in time of famine and scarcity on joint security are educative influences. Village tribunals for the disposal of petty civil suits have got beyond the experiment stage in some places and are in the experimental stage in others. There is, therefore, some material with which to build. The Government of India agree, however, with the view prominently brought forward by the Bengal District Administration Committee, that much will depend on the local knowledge and personality of the officers who may be selected to introduce any scheme.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

39. With this general commendation, the Government of India are content to leave the matter in the hands of local Governments and Administrations. They are disposed to consider that the following general principles indicate the lines on which advance is most likely to be successful:—

(1) The experiments should be made in selected villages or areas larger than a village, where the people in general agree.

(2) Legislation, where necessary, should be permissive and general. The powers and duties of panchayats, whether administrative or judicial, need not and, indeed, should not, be identical in every village.

(3) In areas where it is considered desirable to confer judicial as well as administrative functions upon panchayats the same body should exercise both functions.

(4) Existing village administrative committees, such as village sanitation and education committees should be merged in the village panchayats where these are established.

(5) The jurisdiction of panchayats in judicial cases should ordinarily be permissive, but in order to provide inducement to litigants reasonable facilities might be allowed to persons wishing to have their cases decided by panchayats. For instance, court fees, if levied, should be small, technicalities in procedure should be avoided and possibly a speedier execution of decrees permitted.

(6) Powers of permissive taxation may be conferred on panchayats, where desired, subject to the control of the local Government or Administration, but the development of the panchayat system should not be prejudiced by an excessive association with taxation.

(7) The relations of panchayats on the administrative side with other administrative bodies should be clearly defined. If they are financed by district or sub-district boards, there can be no objection to some supervision by such boards.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

PRESIDENCY CORPORATIONS AND BANGCOON.

40. The Commission recommended that all the presidency corporations should be invested with the powers possessed by the Corporation of Bombay, and that the system of administration in force in that city, viz., that

of a nominated official Commissioner in combination with an elected chairman should be extended to the other towns. They also considered that the same privileges should be conferred on the Rangoon Municipality in view of its population, the large future which lies before it, and the strength of its commercial community.

BOMBAY, CALCUTTA, MADRAS.

41. The presidency municipalities are regulated by special Acts, and their resources and powers are far greater than those of any district municipality. In Calcutta and Madras the municipal chairman is appointed by Government. In Bombay he is elected, but the executive administration is vested in a Commissioner nominated by Government. He is assisted by a deputy commissioner appointed by the corporation subject to the confirmation of Government. The Commissioner possesses wide executive powers; in some matters he must obtain the sanction of the standing committee (a statutory body, one-third of whose members are nominated by Government); in others again of the corporation. The corporation enjoys a very full discretion in the work of municipal administration; it passes its own budget, and may impose taxation within the limits of the law; and the sanction of Government is necessary only to the appointments of health officer and engineer.

The Corporation of Calcutta possesses similarly wide powers. The sanction of Government is, however, required to the execution of works costing one lakh of rupees or more and to the salary of any employee drawing more than Rs. 1,000 a month, as well as to the appointments of health officer and engineer.

In Madras, the Government possess numerous powers which are not reserved to the Governments of Bengal and Bombay.

THE ADOPTION OF THE BOMBAY CONSTITUTION.

42. As regards the main proposal of the Commission, the Government of Bengal were in 1909 disposed to agree with the preference expressed for the constitution of the Bombay Municipality in respect of the offices of Municipal Commissioner and Chairman, but stated that the point would be considered hereafter, should the amendment of the Calcutta Municipal Act be undertaken. The Government of Madras agree with the Corporation as to the advisability of introducing the Bombay system, and they have no objection to the general emancipation of the corporation from Government control, provided that the Municipal Commissioner is placed in a position substantially as strong as he occupies in Bombay.

43. The Government of India have accepted in the main the recommendations of the local Governments which will go far towards carrying out the proposals of the Commission. They have expressed to the Government of Madras the opinion that a free hand might be left to the corporation to impose without the sanction of Government any tax specifically sanctioned by the Act

with regard to which maximum rates have been laid down therein. They consider that in order to provide security of tenure the health officer, revenue officer and engineer should not be removable without the sanction of Government. In the case both of Calcutta and Madras the limit of cost, of works which may be undertaken without the sanction of Government, will be raised to Rs. 2½ lakhs, and with regard to Calcutta, the Government of Bengal have agreed to remove the restriction requiring the sanction of Government to salaries carrying more than Rs. 1,000 a month. The appointments of health officer and engineer will continue to require this sanction.

RANGOON

44. With regard to Rangoon the Government of Burma is not prepared to make the concessions recommended. The circumstances of Calcutta, Madras and Rangoon are in many respects widely different, and the Government of India defer, at any rate at present, to the views of the local Government on this point. But they observe, as a general proposition, that in cities where there is a responsible public press and representation in the provincial councils, the case for entrusting large powers and extended freedom to the municipal bodies appears to be specially strong.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD.

45. The suggestion that Government control over rural boards and municipalities should be exercised in each province by a Local Government Board, which should contain a proportion of non-official members, was not accepted by the Commission. They considered that, since their proposals would greatly reduce the outside control exercised over the proceedings of municipal and rural boards and would provide for the delegation in large measure of such powers of guidance as are necessary to Commissioners and other local officers, no benefit would be derived from the creation of a special controlling board of this nature. The Government of India also are not prepared to support the proposal, which is not only unnecessary in the opinion of the local Governments consulted but is undesirable as tending to perpetuate the very centralisation in local affairs, which it is the object of Government to diminish.

CONCLUSION.

46. In conclusion, the Governor-General in Council hopes that this declaration of policy may lead to steady and sound progress, without hampering local Governments and Administrations or unduly fettering local self-government. It is designed to mark a definite advance in devolution and political education. His Excellency in Council trusts that it will be interpreted in the spirit in which it is framed, a spirit of prudent boldness, calculating risks but not afraid to take them in the cause of progress.

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BY DINSHA EDULJI WACHA.

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THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE WAR AREA.

BY MR. J. HAMILTON BIRRELL, M.A., F.R.S.G.S.

THE annexation by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908 foreshadowed a larger policy which should secure her undoubted supremacy in the Balkan Peninsula. She turned her eyes on Salonika, as did Germany on Constantinople, to both of which the approach lies by the Morava tributary of the Danube, through Serbia. Hence Austria's partial envelopment of that small country as evidenced in a study of the boundary between them, the Austro-German economic supremacy in Serbia (those countries are credited with two-thirds of Serbia's trade), and Austria's fear that the existence of a strong Slavonic Power would excite her discontented Slavs, all pointed to an attempt to smother Serbia. Austria's refusal of an Adriatic outlet for Serbia, culminating in the creation of Albania, also foreshadowed this.

But it was not to the interest of Russia to allow either Austria or Germany to control Balkan policy. As champion of the Slavs and head of the Greek Church, as well as because of her persistent claim to the natural outlet to the Mediterranean, she threw her weight on Serbia's side, and is demonstrating to the world that she is awakening to her vast potentialities. Germany desired to cripple her before her full development should be reached. The ultimate defeat of Russia by Germany is a chimera.

The purchase by Germany of Turkey's assistance was not carried through because of the strength of that moribund country in military resources. This Power, at one time formidable and triumphant, has sunk through misgovernment and corruption, involving an insecurity that ruins political, social, and economic life. From controlling the Balkan Peninsula, Turkey-in-Europe, by the successive rebellion and defection of liberty-loving subject-States, with their natural jealousies and political desires for consolidation, has become disintegrated and reduced to a small area, consisting of the immediate hinterland of Constantinople, with a population only a little greater than that of the city itself.

Germany's purpose was much more diabolical than the mere attempt to buy an ally. Her aim was the declaration, by the supreme head of a large part of the Mohammedan Church, of a Holy War of the Mohammedans over the earth. The underlying idea was to involve India (Mohammedan population 21 per cent. of whole), Egypt (92 per cent.), and other areas in the British Empire in an internal struggle which would have taxed our powers and weakened our resources. That such a plan miscarried, especially in our great Indian Empire, is due in part to an appreciation of the non-necessity on any religious grounds for a Holy War, and in part to the justness and fairness of our rule in our great Eastern dependency.

The disappearance of Turkey-in-Europe, should it occur, may involve the break-up of the Turkish Empire in Asia, where the Arabs and Armenians may seek independence, and Mesopotamia be protected by some European Power. Germany's projects in the Ottoman Empire were foreshadowed in the concessions she obtained in Mesopotamia, while France, which is Turkey's greatest creditor, and Britain, which has also advanced loans in exchange for concessions, to the almost bankrupt Government at Constantinople, must have a large share in the determination of any policy that may be necessary at that city. But, above all, the claims of Russia, Turkey's great antagonist, cannot be disputed, and "the weaker Turkey becomes, the greater is the share which Russia will have in the ultimate solution."

Thus the Eastern theatre of war gives the teacher of geography a first-rate opportunity for lessons on areas that generally receive scant attention. Lake-riddled East Prussia; the plain and plateau of economically rich Poland; the industrial area of Silesia; the agricultural and pastoral Galicia, with its oil-wells and salt-mines; forested Bukovina; the passes and railways of the Carpathians, Hungary, Serbia, and the loose Turkish Empire in Asia, offer fertile fields of study in ethnological, political, economic, and physical geography.

Ethnologically, the Eastern war-area is a great jig-saw puzzle quite beyond the powers of school-children. Their understanding is limited in most

cases to one race for each country. To help them to realise the heterogeneous aggregation of peoples in the Dual Monarchy all that is necessary is to point out that the unassimilated medley of races is made up by people crossing the boundary. Thus in Austria-Hungary we have Austrians, Hungarians, and Poles to begin with; among these, especially near their own boundaries, are Montenegrins, Serbs, Rumanians, Russians, Germans, and Italians; while the ubiquitous Jew and Gipsy require no special introduction. From such an explanation it is easy to understand Serbia's claim to Bosnia and Herzegovina, Rumania's to Bukovina and Transylvania, Italy's to the Adige valley and the area round Trieste. The visualisation of the races may be best realised through pictures where dress and occupation are depicted.

Politically this Eastern theatre may be studied as the "ramshackle empire," with its joint constitution; the discontented Poles seeking for the resurrection of their old kingdom; the Russian peasants awakening to day-dreams of democracy; Serbia's visions of a Greater Serbia; Turkey's nightmare; and so forth. Conditions of town and country life before the war should be touched on.

From the economic point of view we should study the conditions of production and manufacture in the separate areas—Russia's grain crops yielding surplus wheat for us and for Germany, her development of industries in Poland especially, the importance of Lodz; Rumania's wheat and maize for our markets and her petroleum in relation to Germany's shortage; Hungarian flour and horses in similar connections; and the many other instances that will occur to the teacher.

Physical geography will be based on the orographical map. Such points as the outlying position of East Prussia, Poland, Galicia, and Bukovina will arrest attention; their physical connection with (*e.g.*, East Prussia), or separation from (*e.g.*, Galicia), the ruling country will be noted. The climatic conditions obtaining in the Eastern theatre, severe though they be, appear to have had less influence on the war than was anticipated. There is, of course, deep snow on the Carpathians as well as on the highlands of Transcaucasia, but the Vistula is not yet frozen over, nor has ice incapacitated the Russian Baltic fleet. How this climatic factor has influenced the combatants we shall not learn in detail

until after the war, though we have distinct evidence in the frost-bitten feet in the trenches on the western frontier. The few newspaper accounts of the soldiers' sheep-skins, etc., show merely the adaptation to war-conditions of what has been proved indispensable in the same regions in times of peace.

Germany's claim to "a place in the sun" is the key to the western theatre. Her colonies were the reply to her economic progress, with its demand for raw materials, her emigration statistics showing a permanent drain of strength, and her dream of marine omnipotence. She founded her African Empire in 1884, following a maximum emigration of a quarter of a million in 1882. Since then the number of people who leave her shores has steadily decreased, and now the annual figure is less than one-tenth of that of 1882; economic progress has absorbed the remainder. Her people do not make good colonists, for "they cannot assimilate conquered races; but they can very readily be assimilated to the races of these foreign countries in which they settle." The Prussian treatment that has alienated the peoples of the ravished areas of Poland, Schleswig-Holstein, and Alsace-Lorraine has sadly reduced the Hereros in her South-West Africa. Germany's possessions are ruled by the hob-nailed boot. To secure more colonies she must take them from other empires, for the areas most suitable for her inhabitants are already in the hands of other Powers. From France nominally, but from our land in reality, a victorious Germany would snatch the colonies she covets, and by her colonial government add still another to her political crimes.

By taking the geographically easiest route for the invasion of France, Germany showed her intention of absorbing the Low Countries and thus securing the ports that are her natural outlets, for nearly half of her trade passes through Dutch and Belgian ports. Holland was spared, for she could offer no strong defence against German occupation if that country proved victorious, and would prove useful if complications arose. Thus the States that were constituted for her defence against France became the pathway of German advance on that country. Buffer States have a precarious existence when treaty-guarantees are broken: of this Belgium is witness.

Our participation on behalf of an outraged nation gave the war another aspect, for our naval

supremacy left the Austro-German allies shut in on all sides. For them the question of supply became important, and is becoming more and more insistent. At this point the value of neutral countries becomes apparent; they are potential, if not active, sources of supply, and if a political outline map of Europe be coloured to show the belligerent and neutral countries in separate tints, the difficulty to the Central Powers of obtaining supplies is evident, while the openness to the world's markets of the peripheral Allies with naval supremacy is obvious.

The only waters on which the Central Powers can move with any freedom at all are the twice-removed Baltic and Black Seas, which can communicate with the open ocean only through the North and Mediterranean Seas respectively. The latter in turn are ruled by the allied fleets, which also control the oceans. In addition to constant supplies, this control implies the presence of colonial troops in the theatre of war, since the defence of the British and French Empires is secured in the North and Mediterranean Seas. The enemy fleets, unlike their armies, cannot combine for joint action.

As in the eastern theatre, the geography of the western area involves mainly allied territory, for Germany, owing to the political importance of both her own frontiers, and her initial military advantage, has kept her territory almost inviolate. In the west the teacher of geography is able to devote attention to mangled Belgium, while in France he must concentrate on the very valuable area lying in the triangle Dunkirk-Paris-Belfort. Here are the industrial north-east round the western extension of the Belgian coal-fields, the famed vineyards of Champagne, the great iron-fields of Meurthe-et-Moselle, and the water-power cotton factories of the Vosges slopes. Just as French industrial life is very badly hit by the enemy's occupation, any allied invasion of Germany or Austria-Hungary will materially cripple the enemy. The invasion of Hungary or of East Prussia strikes a blow at food-supplies; Silesia is one of three very great manufacturing areas (Saxony and Westphalia being the other two); Alsace-Lorraine is the monument of the successful war of 1870, and a French invasion would be a welcome incitement to revolt there. A German retreat from Belgium would be to yield all that she has to show after six months of war.

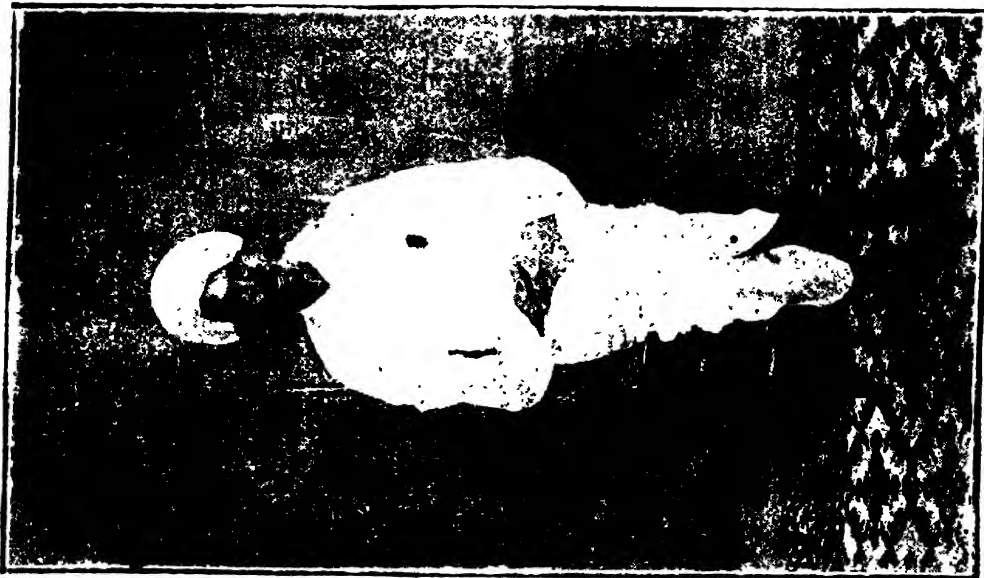
Thus we are naturally led to the economic considerations to which the war has given rise.

The geography teacher may best serve his ends by an examination of Anglo-German trade in relation to the whole trade of the United Kingdom and of Germany. Foodstuffs, raw materials for clothing and shelter as well as for warfare, raise many interesting problems. As all commerce is world-wide in its ramifications, the economic questions involve the study of neutral trade and contraband of war, as well as of sea-borne goods, whether contraband or not, in relation to sea-power. In this connection, moreover, our colonial markets raise several problems that may affect our home policy to an acute degree. Germany depends very largely for her raw cotton on Egypt and India, and for her wool on Australia; the stoppage of such trade would be a heavy loss to these parts. The percentage of loss of our manufactured exports to Germany is a much smaller matter.

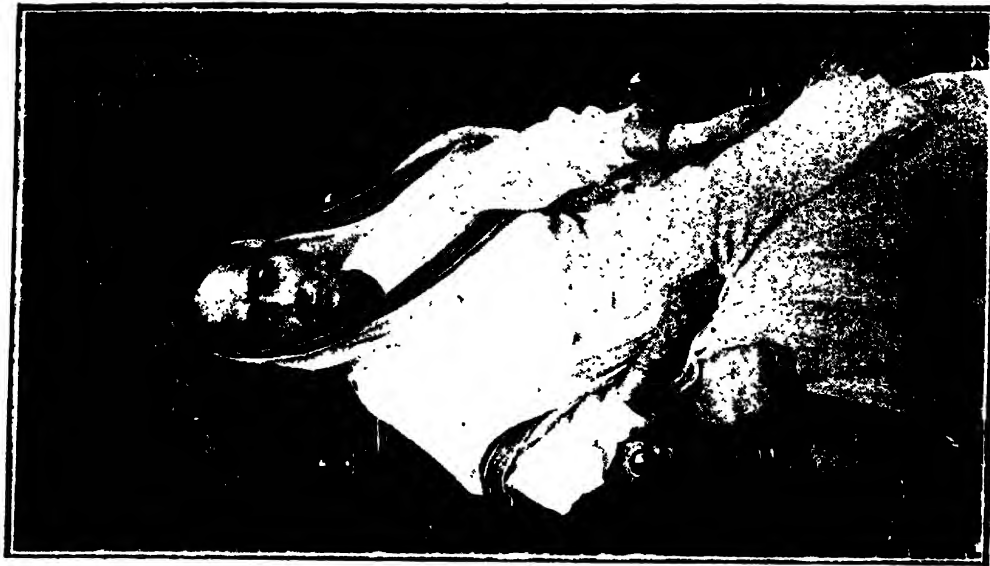
Much more interest is taken by children in the geographical study of the great German Empire itself. Her agriculture in relation to food-supply, her industries in relation to war supplies of all kinds—clothing, equipment, guns, and ammunition, and her government in relation to the everyday life of her people will be keenly followed and enjoyed. Internal communications in relation to transport of troops, war material, medical equipment, and food-supply make another most interesting subject for inquiry having a very close connection with the conduct of the campaign on both frontiers.

In our land we have plenty of evidence that we are at war. We see various war-like preparations at geographically defensive points; but the real appreciation of a state of war results from the withdrawal of labour from most industries and pursuits with a consequent rise of prices all round. In many centres we see an intense industrial life, for military requirements must be satisfied.

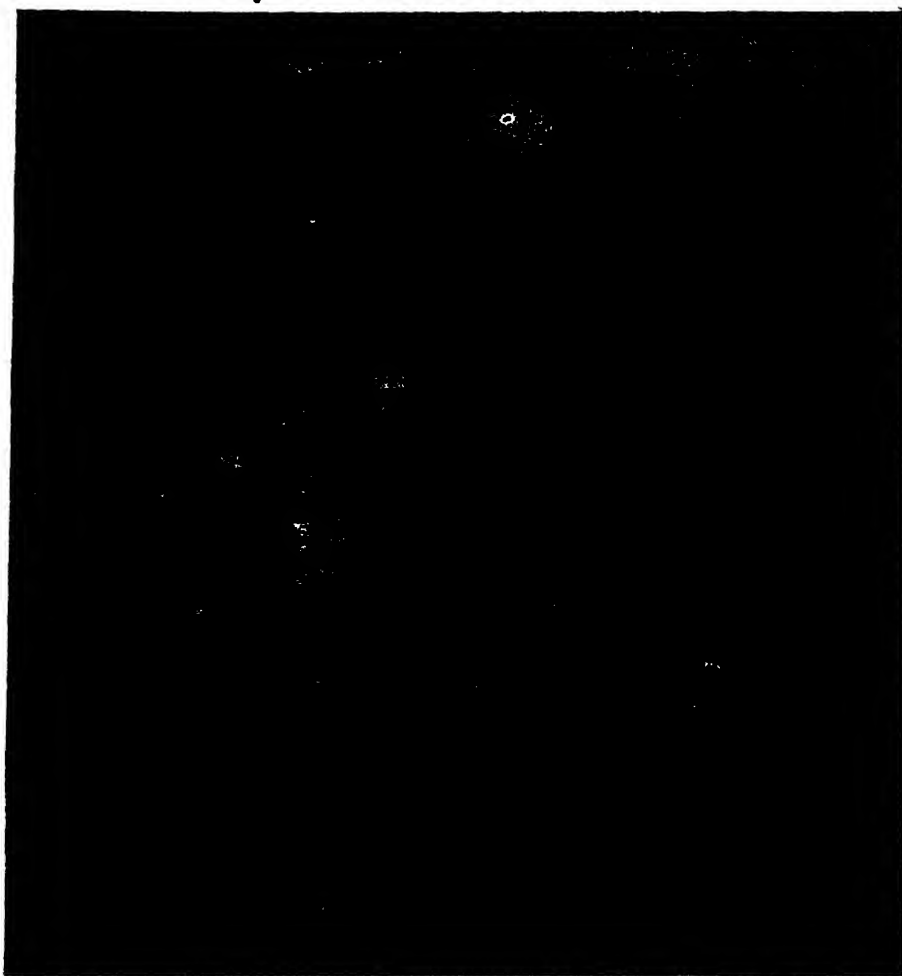
Finally, for the real limit here, as in school, is space, i.e., time, we begin to realise, though only vaguely, even yet, our dependence on foreign countries. I need not labour the question of foodstuffs, and will merely mention our 80 per cent. dependence on the U. S. A. for cotton and the relation of this to its non-inclusion as contraband of war; our almost criminal lack of attention to afforestation with the consequent shortage, due to the German veto, of Swedish pit-props for our coal-mines, and our suicidal neglect of sugar-beet cultivation, the results of which need no elaboration,



MR. GANDHI.



MRS. GANDHI.



THE FIVE GREAT ACHARYAS OF THE VEDANTA SCHOOL.

The Five Great Schools of Vedanta Philosophy.

BY MR. T. S. NARAYANA SASTRIAR, B.A., B.L.

AS far as we have been able to ascertain from the existing literature in Sanskrit, there are eleven schools of Vedanta Philosophy prevailing in different parts of India. Each school is represented by a great teacher or Acharya who has written his own special Bhashya or Commentary on the Vedanta Sutras of Badarayana. The following is a complete list of Brahma Sutra Bhashyas or Independent Commentaries on the Vedanta Sutras, representing the eleven schools of Vedanta Philosophy that came into existence in India in the order of time—

1. The Sariraka-Mimamsa-Bhashya of Sri Sankara Bhagavatpadacharya or Adi Sankara. It represents the Advaita School of Vedanta Philosophy, and it is the authority most generally deferred to in India as to the right understanding of the Vedanta Sutras, and ever since Sankara's time, the majority of the best thinkers of India have been men belonging to this school.

2. The Brahma-Sutra-Bhashya of Bhagavad Vijnana Bhikshu called Vijnanapurita. It represents the Unsectarian Visishtadvaitic School of Vedanta Philosophy.

3. The Brahma-Mimamsa-Bhashya of Srikantha Sivacharya. It represents the Saiva Visishtadvaitic School of Vedanta Philosophy.

4. The Sri Sariraka Mimamsa-Brahma-Sutra-Bhashya or more briefly called Sri Bhashya of Bhagavad Ramanujacharya. It represents the Vaishnava Visishtadvaitic School of Vedanta Philosophy.

5. The Vedanta-Sutra-Bhashya of Baladevacharya called Govinda-Bhashya. It represents a School of Vedanta Philosophy ranging between Sankara's Advaita and Ramanuja's Visishtadvaita.

6. The Brahma-Sutra-Bhashya of Sri Bhaskaracharya. It represents the Unsectarian Dvaita School of Vedanta Philosophy.

7. The Brahma-Sutra-Bhashya of Srikanthacharya also known as Sripati Acharya. It is

shortly called Srikara Bhashya, and it represents the Saiva Dvaita School of Vedanta Philosophy.

8. The Brahma-Sutra-Bhashya of Sri Maddhacharya called also Dvaita Bhashya. It represents the Vaishnava Dvaita School of Vedanta Philosophy.

9. The Anu-Bhashya of Sri Vallabhacharya. It represents the Suddhadvaita School of Vedanta Philosophy.

10. The Brahma-Sutra-Bhashya of Sri Nimbarkacharya, called Vedanta-Parijata-Saurabha. It represents the Dvaitadvaita School of Vedanta Philosophy.

11. The Suka-Bhashya of Sri Suka Bhagavatpadacharya called also Sarva-Vedanta-Sara-Mimamsa Bhashya. It represents the Bhakti School of Vedanta Philosophy as explained in Srimad Bhagavata Purana.

Of these eleven schools of Vedanta Philosophy those of Sankara, Srikantha, Ramanuja, Srikara and Maddhva are the most important and constitute the Five Great Schools of Vedanta Philosophy. In the special picture under illustration, the readers will observe these five great Acharya of Vedanta School of Philosophy seated in the order of seniority and importance just as in a sitting of the Full Bench of the High Court Judges with their characteristic marks. Of these Sankara belongs to the end of the 6th century B.C. (born 509 B.C.). Srikantha was a contemporary of the Second Great Sankara, the 38th Acharya or successor of Adi Sankara, who was born in 788 A.D., and who is unfortunately mistaken for Adi Sankara, and belongs to the latter part of the 8th century A.D. Ramanuja belongs to the earlier part of the 11th century A.D. (born 1017 A.D.). Srikara and Maddhva respectively belong to the latter half of the 11th century and the earlier half of the 12th century A.D. (Srikara having been born in 1072 A.D., and Maddhva in 1119 A.D.)

ASPECTS OF THE VEDANTA.

CONTENTS:—The Vedanta:—Some Reasons for Study—the late Mr. N. Vythinatha Aiyar, M.A. Veda and the Vedanta—the late Prof. Max Muller. Vedanta Toward All Religions—Swami Abhedananda.—The Vedanta in Outline—Pandit Sitanath Tattvabhushan. The Vedanta Religion—Professor M. Rangachariar, M.A. The Ethics of the Vedanta—the late Mr. N. Vythinatha Aiyar, M.A.; Rao Bahadur Vasudeva J. Kirtikar. The Philosophy of the Vedanta—Dr. Paul Deussen. The Vedanta Philosophy—Swami Vivekananda. The Vedantic Doctrine of the Future Life—Pandit Sitanath Tattvabhushan. The Vedanta; Its Theory and Practice—Swami Saradananda. The Vedanta for the World—Swami Vivekananda.

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CURRENT EVENTS

BY RAJDUARI.

PROGRESS OF THE ALLIES.

THE month of the war has been most eventful. Indeed the sanguinary battles that have already been fought during the last four weeks since we wrote, both in the western and eastern theatre, the wholesale extermination of battalions after battalions, the unparalleled amount of ammunition expended, the diabolical resources put into use by the enemy, specially poisonous gases to suffocate their gallant but civilised opponents, the number of prisoners captured, the amount of war and other materials seized, and the air raids and piratical murders of innocent men, women, and children on merchant vessels carrying the neutral flag and the British—all these are of a character unprecedented in the sanguinary annals of the world. Desperation at continuous defeats and repulses has really maddened the enemy who, before the outbreak of the war, was universally reckoned as a great militant power but tempered by the humanity of the age and its refined civilisation, and otherwise attuned to the greatest culture a modern state is capable of. The war, however, has from the first been an eye-opener, and as month after month hostilities have been carried to the bitter end, civilised humanity in all parts of the world has been absolutely staggered at the barbarity, mendacity and utterly inhuman conduct and action of Germany. She has surpassed even the barbarities of the Vandals and the Huns of the early days of Christianity. Even so benevolently neutral a Power as the United States, which hitherto was so forbearing and indulgent has been exasperated at Germany which has set at defiance all the world, and scattered to the winds all international laws, all treaties and all other understandings and agreements. In the opinion of that inebriated state it is a law unto itself. And so far it is in reality deemed by all the great nations of the world, east and west, as an outlaw. But this outlawry in its multifarious details will have to be recorded by impartial history in the fullness of time. Only a British Mopsen could write it with rhadamanthine justice.

Meanwhile it may be instructive to review the outstanding features of the past four weeks.

Flanders, with the Ypres triangle, as much as eastern and western Galicia has been the scene of the wildest and most reckless carnage. Three times has the enemy with his biggest battalions, most unsuccessfully attempted to force the lines at Ypres with a view to making a dash on Calais. But the serried phalanx of the French and the British, supported by the Canadians and Indians, have repulsed him with untold losses of troops, war materials and war baggage. The allied troops have fought with a courage and an elan unsurpassed in history during the last thousand years and more. The soldiery has displayed a presence of mind and a wealth of resources in the midst of the thickest of bloody hand-to-hand or artillery fight which will form an imperishable page in the annals of the world's wars. These characteristics evident before were most marked during the month under review. The generalissimo of the two great armies have more than once congratulated these troops on their intrepid gallantry, while their chivalry to the inhuman enemy, whom any other nation would have given no consideration and no quarter, has been the theme of universal praise. Cruelty to the prisoners in the hands of the enemy has sent a thrill of horror but in spite of such barbarity, besides insults and indignities of the coarsest character, the Allies have, in the spirit of the Good Samaritan, treated the prisoners in their own hands with kindness and respect which is due by gentlemen to gentlemen. As we write the Allies have not only repulsed with great brilliancy the most deadly and frequent attacks all along the western frontier but in certain cases taken the offensive and broken the lines of the enemy. Should the stars in their course continue to give the allied troops the good luck they have had hitherto obtained, it is possible to say with some confidence that the near future will witness greater glory to their arms and an early deliverance for Europe from the grip of the defeated man of iron and blood and deluded invincibility. In his statement in the House of Lords on the 19th May last, Lord Kitchener took a most hopeful and confident view of coming events which greatly cheered the House. And as the War Secretary is a man of the least optimism and the few words it

may be relied upon that he was using the language of subdued assurance of the position the Allies have been able to consolidate.

In both parts of Galician east and west, there has been an ebb and a flow. But on the whole so far as the Russians are concerned it is mostly the advancing tide of victory. The Austrians who have done their best to envelop their opponents in eastern Galicia have been completely routed. The retreat is reported from Petrograd as most disorderly, and the immense booty obtained is further evidence of the event. Bukovina is now in the hands of the Russians who, as we write, are pressing their advantage to a conclusive end. It is to be hoped they will succeed in their object. On the other hand, an avalanche of troops was hurled by the Germans against the Russians in western Galicia, where till late the latter had by great patience, perseverance and heroism occupied all the principal passes but one. For purposes of military strategy the Grand Duke deemed it wise to retreat from a position the supplementary German reinforcements had made it inevitable. The retreat was accomplished in good order but not without loss of some fifty guns. But it seems the brilliant victory at Bukovina has fully retrieved that temporary disaster in the west, and it is to be hoped Russian strategy may yet prevail so as to lay Hungary at the feet of the Cossacks. If not, Bucharest will be the objective, and we need not forecast what a decisive battle in that direction may achieve for the Russians. Altogether the situation is rapidly developing, and it is most likely the month of June may witness a pronounced denouement favourable to the armies of the Allies both east and west. Anyhow we do not expect any fresh stalemate condition which was the chief feature of the belligerents till late.

Meanwhile there have been some excellent scenes in the Dardanelles. The difficult operation of landing the troops, British, French and the Australians, was most successfully accomplished to the great surprise and chagrin of the Turk. The Australians showed the stern and courageous stuff of which they were made just as the Canadians in the west of France. Their valour has been thoroughly appreciated, and his Majesty has cabled his message of congratulation on the hard work they have accomplished. The peninsula of Gallipoli is occupied, while on the Sea of Marmora the Russian fleet is doing as much havoc as it can, though not without some casualties. The Turks were successful in torpedoing a British

battleship, the *Goliath*, but the British in turn were able to sink two destroyers and a transport. All the forts in the Dardanelles have now been silenced. Only one remains, and there is every probability of its fall as the days wear. Still the task before the allied fleet and army is of a most arduous, though not an insurmountable, character.

Not much of activity has been reported of the troops in Mesopotamia, though it is said that a large army of Ottoman troops under German generalship is gathered to give a battle. But considering their equipment and the raw material of the Turks there assembled, it is not expected that they will be able to hurl back the tide of the invasion of the Anglo-Russian armies in that quarter of the world. The untoward, however, may happen. War is a game of chance, and chance may sometimes upset all anticipations and calculations.

NAVAL WARFARE.

In naval warfare it still seems to be the case that while the principal fleet of the British Navy stands fast by the North Sea and has thus imprisoned the fleet of the enemy at Kiel, the aircrafts of the British and French are doing all they can, with energy and resources, to damage many a military encampment, military railway stations, and military arms factories, in different quarters. The French aviator, Girros, after a series of remarkable and thrilling achievements has at last fallen a victim in the hands of the enemy. His imprisonment is to be greatly regretted, and it is impossible to say what bloody revenge the barbaric Huns have taken on him. But, as a rule, British aviators and British naval aircraft have been a triumph all through, and so too those of the French. Their aeroplanes have now established their undoubted superiority, while there are the men of inventive brains at work still intent on improving their efficacy. But when so much is said the most lamentable event of the month on the high seas must be recorded. Though, as usual, the submarines have been torpedoing small crafts and trawlers in the Irish Channel and in the sea north of Scotland, it was not expected that a passenger ship of the pacific character of the *Lusitania* with its 1,900 persons, passengers and crew would be molested with a loss of as many as 1,500 lives including 150 Americans, the most notable of which was Mr. Vanderbilt. The whole narrative of the torpedoing of this magnificent merchant vessel is now public property and need

not be referred to. It was a most abominable of all the abominable murders perpetrated by the inhuman pirates who call themselves cultured Germans. In reckless defiance of all laws and treaties they deliberately sank the vessel in 20 minutes to the great horror of all civilised humanity. The world has been shocked, and the Germans have lost even among their neutral friends the last drop of sympathy that still remained. They have given the greatest umbrage to the United States people, whose wrath knows no bounds. The exasperated people vowed vengeance and have driven the timid President Wilson into deliberate action. He has visited the American fleet while the ovation received on the way by thousands of his compatriots has greatly touched this phlegmatic but most philosophic of all American Presidents. With calm courage and resoluteness he has let the German ambassador at his Court know what the eventualities may be, for Germany will not at once desert from her piracy and molesting all neutral and merchant vessels sailing the high seas. The diplomatic Bernstoff has now felt the pulse of the Yankee and is doing his best to pour oil for a time over the troubled waters. But that ambassador will be greatly mistaken if he fancies that his tortuous diplomacy will soon allay American indignation. Once roused John Bull's cousin will be found to be made of as stern stuff as the Bull himself, and no amount of literary or other propaganda or even mendacious reports or any other tortuous and hated devices will go any way to allay the angered feelings of a people who lose liberty beyond everything else, and who have shewn an amount of tolerance and forbearance which in other

circumstances would have been long since desired.

ITALY.

Meanwhile the temper of the Italians has been greatly tried. For nine long months they have been fed on hopes which have remained unrealised hitherto. The patience of the hot-headed and impulsive Italian, burning to have his revenge at last with his hereditary foe, with his long history of cruel oppression and territorial pillage all round, has been exhausted, and he is not going to stand any more of the temporising policy of a divided cabinet. Things are fast moving in Italy. Signor Salandra, the Premier, to whom the attributes of the sphinx are credited, seeing that popular feeling was running high in favour of war with the Allies, deemed it prudent to place his resignation in the hands of his sovereign. Italy was aflame. The monarch understood at once the drift of the voice acclaimed by his people, though a section of his aristocratic senate is in favour of a stern neutrality than hold the influence of the Jesuitical Prince Buloe. Victor Emanuel has refused to accept the Premier's resignation, while the Premier has been received in the streets of Rome while driving to the Quirinal with ovations unparalleled. That is no doubt strong evidence of his patriotism and desire to join the Allies of old, who were so instrumental in the liberation of Italy. Matters hang in the balance for the present, and none can say what the sphinx-like Salandra may achieve to-morrow. But his decision one way or the other will open a new chapter again in the history of the present warfare.

THE WORLD OF BOOKS

[SHORT NOTICES ONLY APPEAR IN THIS SECTION.]

The Motherland and other Poems. By Rev. C. F. Andrews, Allahabad.

The well-known missionary and writer, Rev. C. F. Andrews, has now given to the world in a collected form several of his poems which have appeared in the pages of the *Modern Review*, the *Nation* and the *Hindustan Review*. His rare gift for style combined with his profound sympathy with Indian life and culture makes these poems charming and valuable.

Milestones in Guzerati Literature. By Krishnulal Mohanlal Jhaveri.

The book before us contains a history of the Guzerati literature by the well-known Guzerati scholar, K. M. Jhaveri. The treatment is critical and scholarly.

Sir Gokhale-prashashthi. By Sridharu Sarma,

This is a hymn in Sanskrit containing eight stanzas in praise of the late Mr. Gokhale. The stanzas are graceful and touching.

Vidyapati: *Bangiya Padabali. Translated into English by Ananda Coomaraswamy. The Old Bourns Press, London.*

Vidyapati whose poems are given to the world in the volume before us wrote in the older form of the Bengali language. The theme of Vidyapati's songs is the same as that of Gita Govind—the love of Radha and Krishna. The work consists of a series of songs or lyrics put into the mouth of Radha, Krishna and of their companions and messengers. These poems are so arranged as to illustrate the birth and development of the great passion of Love between Radha and Krishna. The early songs deal with the first passion of Krishna at the sight of the beautiful Radha. The songs then go on to describe the rising passion of Radha, the counsel of her companions, her first meeting with Krishna and her maidenly shyness, and finally the fulfilment of love in the season of spring. Then follows a short period of fond quarrel and coquetry only to lead to the sorrows of separation. In a series of truly impassioned love-songs, Radha pours out her sorrow and grief at her parting from her husband. Then comes the happy reunion when she "anoints him with tears of joy from her eyes." The story of Love told in these poems is, we are told, an allegorical representation of the yearning of the Human Soul after the Divine. Whatever that be, these songs form some of the best love songs ever known to the East.

Sir Subramaniya Iyer, K.C.L.E., D.L. *By Rai Sahib S. M. Raja Ram Rao, Editor, "Wednesday Review," Trichinopoly.*

This is a very interesting and well written life of one of the greatest of India's public men, Sir Subramaniya Iyer. Both in his public and private character, Sir Subramaniya Iyer is one of the leading personalities of the day. His great earnestness and patriotism, his charity, his simplicity, and love, have deservedly won him the respect he enjoys. The author has, in the sketch before us, well brought out Sir Subramaniya Iyer's characteristics. The early chapters dealing with the life of Sir Subramaniya Iyer are abundantly instructive. The author describes his life and activities with evident zest and clearness. In the last chapter we have a description of the personal traits of Subramaniya Iyer. Two chapters are devoted to Sir Subramaniya Iyer's work as a non-official, and one to his work on the Bench. The sketch on the whole affords an inspiring study.

Administration of Criminal Justice in Ancient India. *By Mr. A. V. Ramanathan, Assistant Secretary to the Government of Mysore.*

Those who are in the habit of thinking that the ancient methods of dispensing justice were crude and barbaric must be prepared for an agreeable surprise in perusing Mr. Ramanathan's excellent pamphlet on the subject. The pamphlet is the result of a wide and extensive study of the ancient literature of India and reveals the extraordinary legal acumen with which criminal cases were investigated in ancient times. The author brings to light not only the methods of investigating criminal cases but the very machinery governing the administration of criminal justice in ancient India. A veritable code of laws, the necessary staff of officers and a mechanism as perfect as could be desired, seem to have been at the service of the citizens. The King, we understand, was the court of final appeal, and it is marvellous that the ancients' sense of justice maintained the custom of trial by peers to such fruitful advantage. Mr. Ramanathan's informing essay thus throws light on an important aspect of the ancient Indian administration.

The Arya Samaj. *By Lala Lajpat Rai. Published by Longmans, Green & Co.*

The book before us is a history of the Arya Samaj by the well-known Punjabi leader and Arya Samajist, Lala Lajpat Rai. It contains an account of the origin of the Arya Samaj, its doctrines and activities with a biographical sketch of the Founder, Swami Dayananda Saraswati. There is an introduction to the book from the pen of Professor Sydney Webb, LL.B. Written by such a veteran leader this book contains a full and authoritative account of the institution. The biographical sketch of Swami Dayananda Saraswati, which forms the first part of the book, is really inspiring. The author gives a full and detailed account of the events of the Swami's life and his teachings.

Signs of the Times. *By Sheo Prasad Mathur, Faizabad.*

The author in the pamphlet before us gives his opinion of how and in what direction India has to progress. The author speaks of the existence of two schools of thought—the one, revivalist and the other, reforming. He is not content with the methods and views of both. The author strikes a *via media* and pleads for "sound intellectual cultivation," and a rational study of the questions that beset us.

DIARY OF THE WAR

- April 17. Brilliant French success at Arras.
Air raids on Mezieres, Charleville and Ostend.
British steamer *Ptarmigan* torpedoed.
Attack on Dutch vessels.
Air raid on England in Northumberland, Suffolk, Essex, and Kent.
- April 18. Activity of French aviators.
Two heights captured by Russians in the Carpathians.
Activity of Russian Fleet in the Black Sea.
Precipitate retreat of Turks from Shaiba.
- April 19. French progress in the Vosges and Alsace;
Air ship raid on Strasburg.
Czar leaves for the front.
Bombardment of Dardanelles resumed,
Turkish destroyer chased and run ashore near Chios.
Greek steamer *Ellispenitis* torpedoed.
- April 20. British aviators' successful attack on railway at Haltingen.
Russian success in the Carpathians.
Austrians' stubborn defence.
Scouting on the Dardanelles, submarine *E15* aground.
- April 21. French successes in Alsace.
German activity in Poland. Numerous air raids.
Trawler *Vanilla* sunk in the North Sea.
Dutch steamer *Glandia* sunk by a mine.
Capture of Kietmanshoop.
- April 22. British capture Hill 60 near Ypres.
Air raid on Mulheim and Habsheim.
Russian advance in the Carpathians maintained.
- April 23. French success in Argonne and Alsace.
Aerial battle along the Rhine.
- April 24. Important French success at Bois d'Ailly.
Czar's enthusiastic reception in Galicia.
The Mediterranean Expedition, Sir Ian Hamilton to command.
Norwegian steamer *Brilliant* captured by Germans, trawler *St. Lawrence* torpedoed, rescued fired on.
- April 25. German attack on the Yser; use of asphyxiating gas; Canadians' good work.
Swedish steamer *Ruth* torpedoed in the North Sea.
- April 26. Fighting round Ypres; capture of Hill 60.
French success in Argonne and on the Meuse.
Forcing the Dardanelles,
Two Norwegian ships sunk by submarines.
- April 27. Anti-war demonstrations in Trieste.
- April 28. Fighting round Ypres, loss of St. Julien.
Belgian success at Dixmude.
German activity in Alsace, German naval activity in Courland.
Russian Naval Squadron shells Bosphorus forts.
- April 29. Forcing the Dardanelles. Further allied operations on both sides of Dardanelles.
Conference of Indian Ambassadors.
German maltreatment of British prisoners.
- April 30. Battle round Arras.
Severe fighting on the Niemen.
French cruiser *Leon Gambetta* torpedoed by Austrian submarine in the Adriatic.
- May 1. Battle of Ypres; furious fighting on the Yser Canal; French progress in Lorraine.
- Allied aviators active; Mauser rifle factory at Anendorf bombed.
Fierce fighting in Carpathians and on the Niemen.
The landing in Dardanelles.
Bombardment of Smyrna.
Air raid on England, Ipswich and Bury; St. Edmunds bombed.
- May 2. Bombardment of Dunkirk by Germans.
Important German offensive in North-West Poland.
Mr. Lloyd George in the House of Commons.
German blockade, colliers and a trawler sunk.
American steamer *Cushing* attacked by German aviator.
- May 3. Bombardment of Metz.
Russian advance on the Niemen.
German investment of Libau.
Bikanir Camel Corps in Suez.
Edale and *Gulfight* torpedoed. French steamer *Europe* sunk.
Small naval engagement in the North Sea.
The British destroyer *Recruit* submarined.
Two German torpedo boats sunk by British destroyers.
- May 4. Allies' splendid air work.
German attacks on Hill 60.
- May 5. German attacks at Ypres and Bois le Pretre.
Heavy fighting on Russian front in the Carpathians, on the Lower Nida and the Vistula; Mount Makavka captured.
Russian bombardment of the Bosphorus.
Two Norwegian steamers sunk.
- May 6. French successes at Bouv Sejour, Bagatelle and Bois le Pretre; desperate fighting on Vistula and Carpathians; advance of the Allies in the Dardanelles.
Turks defeated in Caucasus.
Raid on British trawlers by submarine.
- May 7. Fighting in France and Belgium.
German raid on North-West Russia and big move in Galicia.
- May 8. The Cunard liner *Lusitania* sunk by German submarines, heavy loss of life.
Great German losses in Galicia.
Rupture of Austro-Italian relations imminent.
General Botha's success.
- May 9. Great battle in Galicia.
Forcing the Dardanelles; French diversion, bombardment of Fort Nagara.
- May 10. Fierce fighting round Ypres, successful British offensive.
French successes at Lens and Bagatelle. German occupation of Libau.
Turkish transports sunk outside the Bosphorus.
British destroyer *Maori* sunk by mine.
- May 11. Five German attacks repulsed.
French success at St. George's.
Forcing the Dardanelles; occupation of Kilid Bahr.
Air raid on England, bombs dropped at Westcliff.
- May 12. German dash for Calais repulsed with loss.
Desperate fighting in Galicia.
Forts in the Narrow bombarded.

May 13. Anti-German riots in London.
Fierce fighting in Belgium, investment of Carency.
French success at Loos.
Combined Anglo-French successes.
Anglo-French successes on Gallipoli peninsula.
May 14. French success at Notre Dame de Lorette;
capture of Neuville.
Fierce fighting in Galicia, Russian offensive continues.
Goliath sunk in Dardanelles by torpedo.
Two Turkish gunboats and transport sunk.
Russian bombardment of Bosphorus forts.

May 15. Belgian success on Yser; French activity
north of Arras.
Russian success in West Galicia, disastrous Austrian
retreat.
Anti-German riots in England and South Africa.
Reported sinking of a German submarine.
Retreat of Germans in South-West Africa to Groot-
fontein.
May 16. French progress north of Arras, capture of
Carency.
Pro-war demonstrations in Italy.

DIARY OF THE MONTH.

April 10. The report is issued to the press to-day of the
Conference between the Hon. Sir William Meyer
and the Bombay Chamber of Commerce.

April 11. The Hon. the Maharaja of Cossimbazar
has been elected President of the All-India Hindu
Sabha.

April 12. At a meeting of the British Indian Associ-
ation, the Maharaja of Berhampur presiding, it was
resolved that H. M. the King Emperor be prayed
to grant H. E. Lord Hardinge extension of office.

April 13. At the Police Court, Bombay, the Chief
Presidency Magistrate ordered three vernacular
papers to deposit various sums as securities under
the Indian Press Act.

April 14. A young man Dharambhai Dey, a proclaimed
political offender now arrested in connection with
several cases of dacoity in Calcutta, managed to
swallow poison and died.

April 15. This afternoon the Coroner and Jury held
the adjourned inquest on the body of Sub-Inspector
Suresh Chandra Mukerjee. A verdict of murder was
pronounced and the criminals were committed.

April 16. The Bombay Presidency Association with
Sir Balchandra Krishna passed a Resolution pray-
ing for H. E. the Viceroy extension of office.

April 17. Daulat Rai, late Managing-Director of the
Hindustan Bank, was sentenced to four years' im-
prisonment for his falsifications in the balance-sheet.

April 18. Baron Herbert de Reuter, Managing Director
of Reuter's Telegraphic Co., died to-day.

April 19. The Hon. Mr. Setalvad gave some "wholesome
advice to the young men of India, lecturing under
the auspices of the Aryan Brotherhood, Bombay.

April 20. This morning Sir Michael O'Dwyer, the
Lieutenant-Governor, performed the opening cere-
mony of the Ravi-bridge.

April 21. In accepting the Lords' Proclamation against
the U. P. Executive Council, H. M. the King says
he will direct that no further proceedings be taken
upon the Proclamation without prejudice to the
making of a new draft.

April 22. The Committee of the Indian Civil Service
Dinner Club in London has decided that in view of
the war, there shall be neither the usual Dinner nor
the Garden Party.

April 23. The Inland Steam Vessels Bill has been re-
ferred to the United Provinces Government for
opinion.

April 24. Sir Alfred Kensington handed over the Chief
Judgeship of the Punjab Chief Court to Sir Donald
Johnstone.

April 25. Resolutions praying for Lord Hardinge's ex-
tension of Viceroyalty and protesting against the
Lords' treatment of the measure for the U. P. Execu-
tive Council were passed by the Muslim League.

April 26. The Lahore Conspiracy case commenced
to-day before a Bench of special Commissioners.
There were 81 accused in all, of whom 64 were
present.

April 27. At the High Court, Calcutta, Mr. Justice
Chitty and Mr. Justice Beachcroft admitted appeals
preferred by Kali Das Bose and three others, who
have been convicted of conspiring to have possession
of a mass of ammunition.

April 28. Sixty-seven accused were discharged in the
Shini case but the work of the special Tribunal at
Multan is still heavy.

April 29. Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi were entertained at
Mayavaram on their way to Tranquebar.

April 30. In the Lahore conspiracy case the approver's
evidence was taken to-day.

May 1. Four up country men in the employ of the East-
ern Bengal State were arrested at Sealdah in con-
nection with various dacoities.

May 2. Sir Leslie Miller, Chief Judge of Mysore, open-
ed the first public library for the province.

May 3. The Commissioners of the Lahore Conspiracy
Case are proceeding with the evidence.

May 4. The Twenty-first Madras Provincial Conference
opened at Nellore to-day.

May 5. A "Gazette of India Extraordinary" is issued
publishing an ordinance to provide for special pro-
tection in respect of civil and revenue litigation of
Indian soldiers serving under war conditions.

May 6. Telegraphic communication was interrupted
to-night by a storm, which blew down the wires
between Umballa and Delhi.

May 7. The Official Liquidator of the Credit Bank
Bombay, has submitted its Report to the Chamber
Judge.

May 8. The *Namakarngnam* or the naming ceremony
of the Bengal Floating Hospital was performed by
H. E. the Governor of Bengal.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- IN HOC VENICE: THE STORY OF A RED CROSS FLAG.** By Florence L. Barclay. G. P. Putnam's Sons, London.
- MACAULAY: HORATIUS, REGILLUS, THE ARMADA.** Edited by A. J. F. Collins, M.A. University Tutorial Press, Ltd., London.
- FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.** By Mrs. Macnicol, L.R.C.P., & S.E. The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- WALT WHITMAN AND HIS POETRY.** By Henry Bryan Binns. George, G. Harrap & Co., London.
- WAR AND RELIGION.** By the Rev. N. Macnicol, M.A., D. Litt. The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE,** From the Institute, Rome.
- MARS: THE WAR LORD.** By Alan Leo. L. N. Fowler & Co., London.
- MACMILLAN'S NEW ENGLISH READER V.** Macmillan & Co., Bombay.
- MARSDEN'S HISTORY OF INDIA FOR JUNIOR CLASSES.** Published by Macmillan & Co. Priced As. 12.
- THE PRE-MUSSALMAN PERIOD OF INDIAN HISTORY.** By M. Prothero and Mahamahopadyaya Satishchandra Vidyabhushana. Published by Macmillan & Co.
- THE SANSKRIT TEACHER,** by Rao Bahadur Kamalashankar Pranshankar Trivedi, B.A. Published by Macmillan & Co. Priced Rs. 1-8-0.
- CLAIRVOYANCE.** By J. C. F. Grumbine. L. N. Fowler & Co., London.
- TELEPATHY.** By J. C. F. Grumbine. L. N. Fowler & Co., London.

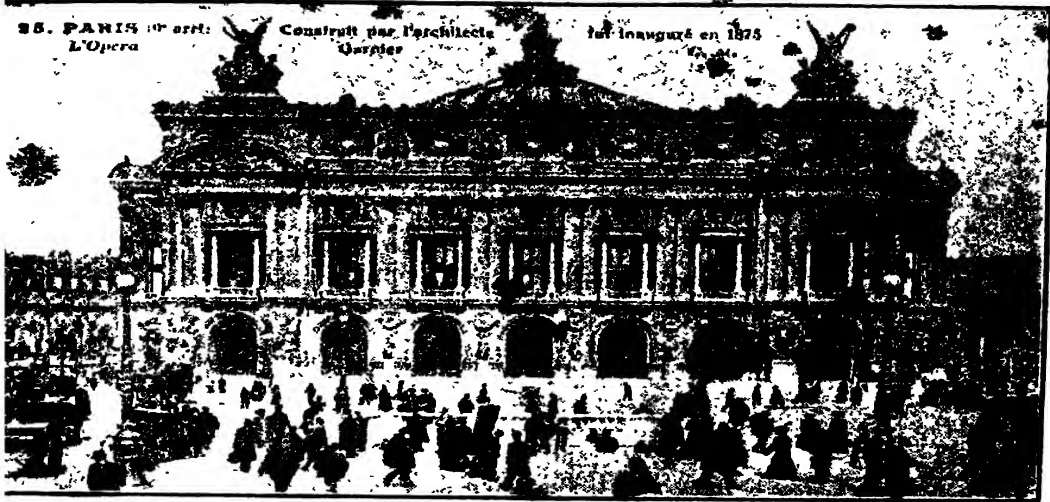
BOOKS RELATING TO INDIA.

- A HELP TO FAMILY WORSHIP (IN TAMIL).** The C. L. S. I., Madras. Price As. 4.
- HOSPITAL ETIQUETTE (IN TELUGU).** The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- TWELVE BIBLE STUDIES IN THE LIFE OF SERVICE.** The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- BENGALÉE: LITERARY AND COLLOQUIAL.** By R. P. De. Dey Brothers, New Market, Calcutta.
- INDIAN BANKING AND STATE AID.** By Alakh Dhari. The "Leader" Press, Allahabad.
- INFORMATION RELATING TO THE I.C.S. EXAMINATION FOR INDIAN STUDENTS.** By an I.C.S. Published by H. M. Desai.
- A HINDU'S ARTICLES OF FAITH.** The Kapalee Press, George Town, Madras.

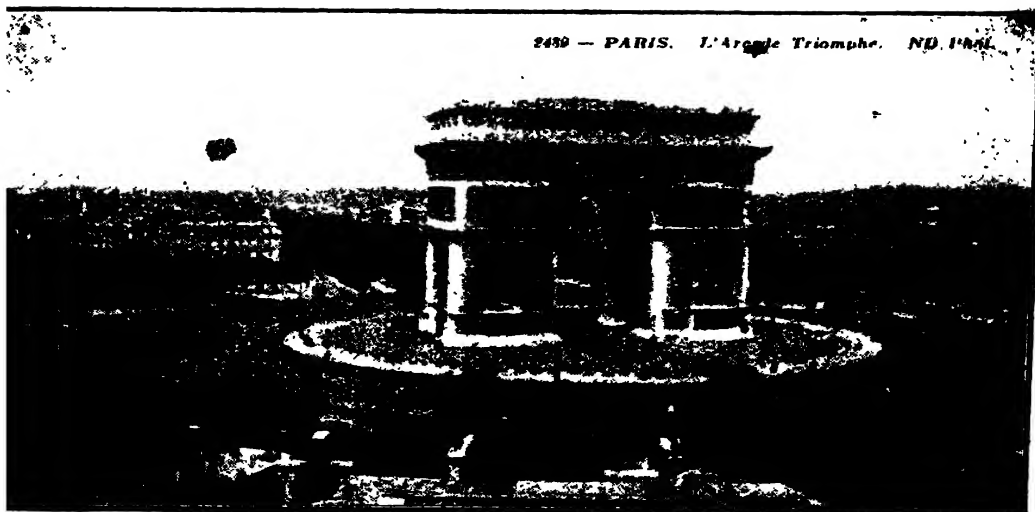
- GEOGRAPHY OF ASIA (IN TELUGU).** The C. L. S. I., Madras. Price As. 5.
- PICTURES AND STORIES FOR THE YOUNG.** The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- MISSIONARY IDEALS.** Translated into Tamil. By K. T. Paul. The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- BIBLE LESSONS FOR BEGINNERS.** The C. L. S. I., Madras.
- RABINDRANATH TAGORE: A BIOGRAPHICAL STUDY.** By Earnest Rhys. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., London.
- THEOSOPHICAL EDUCATIONAL TRUST, 1914.** Published by the Secretary, Theosophical Educational Trust, Adyar, Madras.
- LAILI AND MIJNUM.** By James Atkinson. Panini Office, Allahabad.

INDIA IN INDIAN AND FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

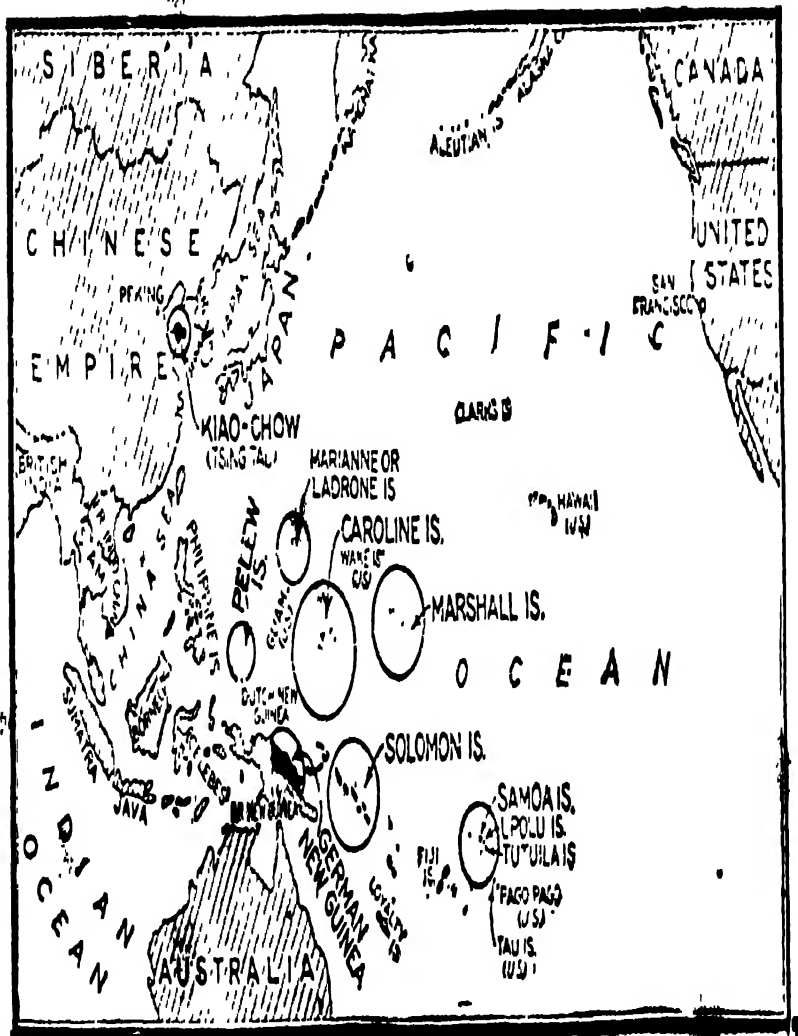
- INDIA AFTER THE WAR, FROM THE ECONOMIC STANDPOINT.** By Sir Daniel M. Hamilton. [The "Asiatic Review," April, 1915.]
- THE GOSPEL OF GURU NANAK.** By Principal T. L. Vaswini, M.A. [The "Sikh Review," March, 1915.]
- A MOHAMMEDAN TRACT SOCIETY.** [The "Moslem World," April, 1915.]
- CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA AFTER THE WAR.** By H. P. K. Skipton. [The "East and West," April, 1915.]
- HINDU ICONOGRAPHY.** By Mr. A. K. Maitra. [The "Modern World," March, 1915.]
- THINGS THAT ARE NOT TAUGHT IN INDIAN SCHOOLS.** By Mr. John Wallace, C.E. [The "Mysore Economic Journal," April, 1915.]
- THE GURUKULA.** By Dr. Deva Prasad Sarayadhi-kari. [The "Vedic Magazine," April-May, 1915.]
- TREE WORSHIP IN INDIA.** By Medico. [The "Modern Review," May, 1915.]
- THE SPRING FESTIVAL IN BENGAL.** By Mr. Sarat Chandra Mitra, M.A., B.L. [The "Hindustan Review," April, 1915.]
- IS BUDDHISM DEAD IN INDIA.** By B. K. Sarkar. [The "Buddhist Review," April, May, June, 1915.]
- ANCIENT HINDU SHRINES OF JAVA.** By P. L. Narasimha. [The "Theosophist," May, 1915.]
- THE TEACHER AND THE TAUGHT IN ANCIENT INDIA.** By T. D. Gajra. [The "Indian Education," May, 1915.]



PARIS OPERA.



PARIS.



GERMAN COLONIES IN THE EAST,

TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS

BLACK AND WHITE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Mr. M. S. Evans, a native of Natal and an impartial student of the South African native question, writes a long article about the relations of black and white men in the April number of the *International Review of Missions*. The question cannot be regarded as satisfactorily answered unless both races have opportunity to develop all the possibilities of their nature, and unless it is proved that the necessary contact does not make for degeneration of one or both. The problem will not be solved if the whites should always depend upon the manual labour of the backward race and live largely on the exploitation of their labour and ignorance; nor will the solution be arrived at if the backward race has no opportunity to rise. At present the industrial system of South Africa rests upon the manual labour of the native and the coloured man, and in East Africa upon that of the native, the Bantu. The manual labour of the great gold mining industry is done by the native, and he is debarred by regulation to undertake any skilled or even semi-skilled work.

The white man directs and supervises but never undertakes the pick and shovel work. The average native does not exert himself unduly, and his labour is not willing and hopeful. The relief from the wholesome discipline of bodily exertion and the ability to place unpleasant tasks upon the native has a great deteriorating effect among those whites who can avail themselves of it, especially on the young. The trade unions demand that skilled trade should be a monopoly of the whites, resent any skilled work being done by natives or even coloured men and deny entrance into the unions to all such. But the power of the unions is limited to the towns, and native artisans get most of the work on the farms especially in the small country towns. The future carries with it all the elements of industrial plus racial conflict, and it is premature to make any predictions as to the results of the struggle.

In the gold mines of Witwatersrand the native workers learn all the lawful and unlawful vices of the white man, and the effect of their agglomeration is to change profoundly the native life and outlook. Among the natives might be seen working significantly several forces like the

breaking down of old tribal distinctions and animosities, the growing individualism and independence of the younger people, an impatience with the old simple life and a desire for luxury and display, a gradual improvement in their capacity as workmen and a sense that they are not paid in accordance with that. The social problem is intensified in difficulty since the class of poor whites is constantly on the increase, and since contact between them and the coloured and black is closer and on terms which beget demoralisation of both.

If the whiteman is to be artificially protected, and the native denied the opportunity to rise, it means a weakening of the force and character which the whites need in South Africa more than elsewhere, if they are to fulfil the responsibilities of a governing race and justify their presence. There are four principal policies, not very precisely formulated, which are being advocated by different schools of thinkers and politicians, viz., (1) the repressionist which means keeping the native as a manual labourer and suppressing their aspirations; (2) the segregationist by which the two races are to be absolutely separated into distinct territorial areas each living their lives entirely apart; (3) the policy of giving equal rights and equal opportunity; and (4) the policy of territorial separation with opportunity for racial development. The writer advocates the 4th and thinks that it will minimize many of the dangers. Sufficient areas should be set aside to provide that the native shall live his home life apart from the whites. These areas should be under the control of trained white administrators, but the natives should have a large part in the local government. The much-discussed Natives Land Bill is an embodiment of this principle. The policy of equal opportunity and equal rights is impossible since the majority of the whites will never permit a policy that ignores race differences. The appointment of a permanent non-political advisory council on this momentous question may be very useful. It will facilitate mutual understanding and mutual sympathy and in the long run, if rightly and impartially conducted, will tend to promote the morale of either. It must be at once a check and the guardian of their interest. The utility of such an institution can seldom be overestimated.

INTERNATIONAL MORALITY.

Mr. Arthur Ponsonby, M.P., writing to the current number of the *International Journal of Ethics*, condemns the faulty system of international communication and diplomacy which have long remained unchanged, while there has grown a marked development of intercourse socially, commercially and financially among the peoples. The people, however educated and however democratic, continue to be excluded from knowledge of foreign policy and from even a remote participation in its management. Directly any war is threatened, it is easy enough for each Government to persuade its people into whatever version it chooses of the cause and origin of the catastrophe, which nations and governments all declare to be inevitable. It is very easy to engender a chauvinistic spirit, and a lust for dominion, an aggressive spirit of imperial ascendancy in a people. Thus it was that in the course of a week, a series of diplomatic disputes was sufficient to plunge the whole of Europe into a devastating war. Anyhow the nations up to now have had no voice whatever either in the scattering of gunpowder or in the striking of the match. None of these decisions has had their approval; the policy in all such cases has been presented to them as a *fait accompli*.

The most undesirable feature about war is that, while the generation that experiences war and has immediate knowledge of its horrors and futility, is ready to learn a lesson, the succeeding generations have war presented to them in a historical setting bereft of its poignant and cruel reality, and are therefore far more quiescent in its recurrence than their fathers would be in their place. The inevitability of clashes and conflicts between nations is not actually removed by wars, since they do not settle disputes, but create many new ones, which become the seed of future wars. The conflicting ambitions, when left in the hands of a very small governing class and manipulated by them secretly, increase in intensity and are the real cause of trouble. The whole diplomatic system with its utterly out-of-date machinery, its absurd secrecy and intrigue produces the maximum amount of friction and misunderstandings. When in all other fields, like scientific research, commerce, and interests of labour, the efforts of nations have been successfully co-ordinated, it may not be impossible for political activities to be co-ordinated and dealt with for the common benefit.

Racial animosity between Anglo-Saxons and Latins, Westerners and Orientals, Teutons and Slavs, does not constitute a constant menace to the world's peace; but it is the aggressive desire for expansion of the various powers that begets dangerous jealousy and rivalry; and the partition of dying and decaying countries forms one of the greatest temptations. *Balance of Power* and concert have been the two most potent instruments in international diplomacy. The attainment of the former is an impossibility; and therefore what is aimed at is not balance at all, but preponderance of the one party or the other; and the smallest point of difference between the two becomes a matter of bargain and consequent tension. It is this chimera that has led to the formation of the *Triple Entente* and the *Triple Alliance* and to the enormous increase of armaments which characterizes the last two decades. The concert is also equally futile and has never been unanimous. It would be possible, however, if once the policy of co-operation is accepted, for the powers to decide forthwith at which capital the central deliberations should be held, and the accredited representatives at that capital would at once convert themselves into a conference. And if these representatives would be men chosen on their merits from the people at large, the lines of their policy would have the sanction, and their decision the ratification, of their respective Parliaments.

A MONETARY STANDARD.

Mr. C. A. Conant, contributing to the March number of the *Economic Journal*, urges reasons for maintaining the theory that gold money assures the maintenance of a rough stability in the ratio of values of different commodities. There are in some minds hopes that the mechanism of credit can be so much further perfected as to suffice for the settlement of all exchanges and permit metallic money to be dispensed with altogether. And underlying the view that money can be dispensed with lies the theory that there can be some other standard of value than gold. Socialists contend that if the products of the community could be more directly exchanged with each other without the intervention of money, the banker would cease to rob the community of unearned increments, and substantially the entire volume of national capital would be at the command of the workers.

The theory of a non-monetary economic system has been reduced to definite terms by a number

of socialist teachers like Robert Owen, Proudhon and Solvay; and it is based fundamentally on the conception that goods can be exchanged for each other through a system of checks or commodity bonds. The plans suggested to put in operation this theory attempted to fix a time-standard of value, which involved great inequalities in the valuation of different types of labour; there was besides no fixed rule for determining the ratio of demand and supply of commodities. Owen and Proudhon were ignorant of the great truth, grasped by the much keener mind of Karl Marx that labour spent upon commodities counts effectively only in so far as it is spent in a form useful to others, and that whether such labour is useful can be proved only by an act of exchange. Metallic money has the merit of always being exchangeable at some rate for all classes of goods in the markets; and it thus becomes the touchstone of the demand for the different classes of goods. And any system which proposes to substitute certificates of labour at a constant value for the system of fluctuating values expressed in money is based upon a fallacy; and the fallacy lies in the assumption that the value given to articles by labour remains unaltered by changes in the demands for such articles.

The demand for currency in an advanced commercial community is for a sufficient sum to carry on retail transactions, pay wages and support the fabric of credit. Transactions are largely made in the form of checks, bank-notes and credit instruments, and these transactions compensate each other by the exchange of written documents; and at various stages in these transactions the banker intervenes to give his guarantee of the fulfilment of obligations; and that they shall be fulfilled in the medium in which they are expressed and which it is his special function to provide. And whenever crises occur in the credit system, gold stands forth as the unimpeachable store of value—the only commodity which is universally exchangeable. The normal demand for gold is only for that of a tool of exchange, and it is not the final object of exchange. The gold stock is watched by bankers, not because they prize it, but because a certain ratio of gold to credit is the evidence that credit has not been expanded beyond its proper proportion to free capital.

It is important when the ratio of value of some commodities towards others is disturbed, and when certain commodities cease by their excessive rate of production to be acceptable at their old values, there should be an article like gold, which none will refuse in settlement of an obligation because it is of practically universal exchangeability and acceptability.

SWAMI DAYANANDA SARASWATI.

In the current number of the *Vedic Magazine*, we have a penetrating study of Swami Dayananda Saraswati by Babu Arabindo Ghose. The work and character of the great Kathiawar reformer have left a deep impress upon the new life of India and will long continue to influence any attempts that are made to reform our ancient religion. In the study before us, the nature and scope of this work and the character of the man who did it are most vividly and critically brought out. There is something really inspiring in Mr. Arabindo Ghose's description of the character of the Swami, his freshness of mind and purity, his immense energy and practicality, his sincerity and strength.

It was Kathiawar that gave birth to this puissant renovator and new-creator. And something of the very soul and temperament of that peculiar land entered into his spirit, something of Girnar and the rocks and hills, something of the voice and puissance of the sea that fling itself upon those coasts, something of that humanity which seems to be made of the virgin and unspoilt stuff of Nature, fair and robust in body, instinct with a fresh and primal vigour, crude—but in a developed nature capable of becoming a great force of general creation.

As I regard the figure of this formidable artisan in God's workshop, images crowd on me which are all of battle and work and conquest and triumphant labour. Here, I say to myself, was a very soldier of Light, a warrior in God's world, a sculptor of men and institutions, a bold and rugged victor of the difficulties which Matter presents to Spirit.

The work of this great soul consisted in seizing upon and propounding a new principle upon which Hinduism might unite and develop on progressive lines. He seized on the 'Veda' as India's Rock of Ages and had the daring conception to build on what his penetrating glance perceived in it—a whole education of youth, a whole manhood and a whole nationhood. Guided by a sure national instinct, he laid hold of a vital thing of the past and threw it into the stream of modern life, thus giving it new force and vitality. In all this, Dayananda was guided by that sincerity, that truth of mind and character which had been the keynote of his life.

Truth was the masterword of the Vedic teaching—truth in the soul, truth in the vision, truth in the intention, truth in the act. Practical truth, "arjava" an inner candour and a strong sincerity, clearness and open honour in the word and deed, was the temperament of the old Aryan morals. It is the secret of a pure unspoilt energy, the sign that a man has not travelled far from Nature. It is the bar-dexter of the son of heaven, Devasputra. This was the stamp that Dayananda left behind him, and it should be the mark and effigy of himself by which the parentage of his work can be recognised.

BALKAN TERRITORIAL AMBITIONS.

Sir Alfred Sharpe, writing in the April number of the *Nineteenth Century and After*, describes the territorial ambitions of the various Balkan states, which cause them all to be vitally interested in the present war. Bulgaria demands that Serbia should give back to her all the territory that she could have asked under the 1912 Treaty, and from Greece the port of Kavalla and some neighbouring towns. If Serbia, as a result of the war, should become able to expand largely in the north-west by the acquisition of Bosnia, Herzegovina and parts of Dalmatia and Croatia, she can well afford to be generous to Bulgaria. She may also secure some territorial concession from Roumania as the price for 'amicable neutrality,' when the latter state should proceed against Austria. In any case, Bulgaria, provided she does not make a *faux pas*, will after the war become a larger state than she now is.

Roumania hopes for the incorporation of Transylvania in her dominions, but must establish a substantial claim to this. Greece has no prospect of increasing her dominions in Europe except by the occupation of the southernmost strip of Albania, but she also looks for some accession in a new direction, *viz.*, the islands of the Aegean or Cyprus, or Smyrna with a little hinterland.

There is no moral doubt that Bulgaria has intrigued with both Austria and Turkey, and the prevailing impression is that she even meditated a descent on Serbia. She has countenanced organised attacks by 'Comitaji bands' on the Salonika railway, Serbia's only line of communication with the outer world. The result of Bulgaria's policy so far is that she has embittered Serbia and irritated Greece which would make a territorial settlement with them more difficult. It would be eminently unreasonable that Greece should be called upon to give away some of her European territories, while the other states are enlarging theirs. The national question in the Balkans is largely kept alive by systematic outside agitation and should not be allowed to stand in the way of geographical and other equally important considerations. Dalmatia may be divided between Italy and Serbia. The Albanian question might be settled by giving Epirus to Greece, the extreme northern strip to future Serbia and by constituting the central portion into an independent or international state with Government by a strong representative council. Constantinople is expected as a gift by Russia, but may be given over to Belgium.

THE ESSENTIAL GERMAN.

Mr. E. B. Osborn, writing in the April number of the *United Empire*, proceeds to analyse psychologically the essential German. It is necessary for this purpose to forget the conventional German dear to the soul of the caricaturists—the bald-headed swag bellied old fellow with huge spectacles and vast tankard and pipe of cosmical dimensions—the type being derived from the parodied appearance of Prince Bismarck. The princely poverty of Thackeray's German, Matthew Arnold's intellectual German who sees all the affairs of modernity in the light of ancient history—these have been popular forms of parody. But it would be folly to under-rate the value of the erudite German's work or to refuse to make use of it. He seeks no tangible reward for his labours and is superior to the average Oxford don whose ambition prefers a progressive income to a slowly ripening European reputation. The typical German professor is unselfish and easily accessible; he would ask his pupils to drink a little white wine in an open-air *café* and talk philosophy with a complete absence of patronage and pose.

The joviality incarnate in Leland's kindly caricature is not to be found in modern work-a-day Germany, and it possibly survives if it survives at all only among students of the more reckless type. The German has been taught by close on a century of education to waste not an atom of his energy on mere joyousness of living. It is this commercialism and absence of real life that makes war for the Germans a business from beginning to end—one in which success depends on keeping an accurate profit-and-loss account of terror and tribulation in every department. Germany is governed by a machine of old men for whom youth and beauty, pathos and passion, count for nothing except in so far as they may be employed as means to material ends.

The average German is not so bad as the German people, which in its collective capacity exhibits a kind of lowest common denominator of racial passions and prejudices. A passage in the American *Outlook* bears witness to the universal distaste for the Germans in Europe, and they are the most detestable type '*nouveaux riches*' in foreign countries. The German has ever been a pushful fighter. Men as far apart as Tacitus and Mirabeau agree about his instinctive love for fighting; Napoleon declared that Prussia was hatched out of a cannon-ball, and true to his dictum, the Prussians have ever shown themselves brutal and overbearing in victory.

DAMASCUS AS A MOSLEM CENTRE.

Margaret Johnstone, writing in the April number of the *Moslem World*, describes the characteristics and the recent amazing increase in the population of Damascus, which holds the double advantages of a seaport and an inland capital. It is the emporium of the desert from which numerous caravan tracks converge in her on all sides. Her marts are the exchange for the East and the West, and are the meeting-places of smart touters from America as well as merchants from Kandahar and Balkh. Syrians, Assyrians, Selucids, Romans and Mabataeans reigned there in succession before the Moslem Arabs, who under Khalid conquered the city for Islam and established there the headquarters of the Caliphate. Here too Saladin held his Court forsaking Cairo for Damascus as a more strategic centre, and here he lies buried in close proximity to the great mosque of the Omayyad Caliphs.

With the Arab conquest, commenced a new era for Damascus as a centre of Islamic influence. It lies on the route to Mecca; and for weeks before the starting of the Hajj, the whole city becomes full of bustle and activity, and the religious fervour of the pilgrims inflames the populace also who are then likely to take offence very easily and to rise in revolt. Of late, there has been a very disquieting increase in the population through the influx of refugees from all parts of the Turkish Empire. The immigrants are usually given grants of money and concessions of land; but as a rule they are turbulent spirits whose doings have caused trouble with the Christian powers leading to their expulsion. Among them are Cretans, Cypriotes, Circassians from the Russianised provinces, Kurds from Armenia and the more recent accessions from Europe since the Balkan Wars. This lawless element is a perpetual menace and in times of political disturbance or religious ferment, furnishes a ready instrument for plunder or massacre.

The status of the Christian community still leaves much to be desired. Excluded from Government positions they are also hampered in any attempt to share in agricultural interests, and are suffering from an effective check on residential ownership of landed property. Intellectually and socially, they are in advance of the Moslem community, which, however, has had no small share in the development of theology and the making of Arab literature. Religious currents are very strong among them; and the Dervish orders are very well represented.

SOUTH INDIAN HISTORY.

In the course of a paper published in the *Journal of the South Indian Association*, Mr. S. Krishnaswamy Aiyangar, University Professor of Indian History, points out that nearly quarter of a century has elapsed since the first constructive attempt was made by Messrs. Sundaram Pillai and Venkayya at fixing some milestones in the history of Tamil literature. From that time attempts have been made in various directions and more milestones have been laid, some truly and others not so well. The Gajavahu of Ceylon referred to in the *Silappatikaram* has been fixed to A.D. 171-193, and the identification seems to be valid so far as outside checks are now available. Well preserved tradition couples the name of Sambhanda with one Siruttondar, who took a prominent part in the destruction of the Chalukyan capital Vatapi in 640 A.D. by the Pallavaking Narasimha Varman I. It is possible to group a body of literature round these as belonging to this century. Tim-mangai Alvar's reference to one Vairamegha who conquered Kanchi and Thondamandalam must mean, according to Mr. Venkayya, the Rashtrakuta king Dantidurga Vairamegha, who lived in the middle of the 8th century. Thus there are three distinct landmarks to the age antecedent to the tenth century, from which alone historical investigation bears certain and definite fruits. The second century A.D. and a part of the third century should be the period of the so-called Sangam literature.

The second landmark, viz., the date of Sambhanda, seems to have got a fair unanimity of agreement. With regard to the 3rd there have been criticisms of various kinds, but the conclusion has so far remained unshaken; and every authority seems to ascribe the 8th century for the Alvar. The next milestone worth noting is the age of Mandalapuresha, the author of *Chudamani Nigandu*. In the period of Chola ascendancy, there are a number of historical dates and facts to mark our path. The *Virasoliyam* was composed during 1063-70, and the *Kalingattuapparani* of Jayangondan during the second decade of the next century. Ittakuttan was a contemporary of Kulottunga II. and Rajaraja II., and Pagalendi and Kamban must have flourished in the same period as well. These are the most prominent landmarks for starting a systematic arrangement of the literary and historical material available, for South Indian history.

EGYPT UNDER MEHEMET ALI.

The expulsion of the French army from Egypt in 1801 by the British Expeditionary Force under Sir Ralph Abercromby was followed immediately by the coming into prominence of the famous Mehemet Ali, who was soon to play such a leading part in the history of Egypt. Lieutenant-General Tyrell contributes an interesting biographical and historical sketch of this Janissary leader in the March number of the *United Service Magazine*. As soon as the British Army of occupation evacuated the country, the old triangular contest for power between the Turkish Viceroy, the Mameluke Beys, and the Turkish soldiery, recommenced with full vigour. Mehemet Ali, supported by the influence of the French ambassador at Constantinople, was the one man in Egypt who had command of ready money by which he might secure the fidelity of soldiers and dispense with the exactions and extortions which aroused the resentment of the citizens. He assumed the role of mediator between the Pasha and the people and ultimately succeeded in being appointed by the Porte as their Egyptian Viceroy. He admitted the Beys to a nominal share in the Government and patched up a peace with them; but some years later they were caught in a trap and almost all of them were slain.

He then devoted himself to the reform of the civil and military administration of the country. He welcomed to his service ex-French officers of *Le Grande Armée* and organised and trained his Turkish and Arnaut irregular soldiery after a European model. He ruthlessly swept the Fellaheens into the net of conscription; and in vain did they cut off their thumbs and put out their eyes to escape from the hateful yoke of military service. The Greek insurrection against the Porte tested the value of the new troops and the new navy of Mehemet Ali. After defeating the Greeks and ravaging their country he crossed to the mainland and captured the fortress of Missolonghi, then their chief stronghold, and returned to the Morea to complete its conquest. But meanwhile the state of public opinion in Europe shamed the great powers into taking action and compelled the Egyptian army to evacuate the country. But Mehemet Ali would not allow his forces to rust for want of use, and being backed by Louis Philippe, who hoped to use Egypt some day as a power in the game against England, claimed the

Government of Syria from the Porte. His victorious campaigns against the Turks and march across the mountains into Anatolia confirmed him in the Government of Syria and Palestine; and these countries were once more united to Egypt as they had been in the times of Saladin and the Mameluke Sultans. In 1840 the war was renewed between the Ottoman Sultan and the Pasha, and the people of Syria revolted against Egyptian rule, preferring the happy-go-lucky methods of Turkish administration and the French Government failed to come to the assistance of its *protege*. After the usual conferences and correspondence it was settled that the Government of Egypt should be confirmed to Mehemet Ali as a hereditary viceroyalty under the suzerainty of the Sultan. How much of the success of the Egyptian arms temporarily was due to the personal character of their general is a matter of conjecture. The latter years of his life were passed in the furtherance of their many schemes for the commercial and industrial exploitation of the resources of Egypt, which were not, however, suited to the capacity of the country or to the character of the people.

THE SIKH SYMBOLS.

Sirdar Harnam Singh writes to the March number of the *Sikh Review* about Sikhi symbols and particularly about *Keshas*. From an intensive study of some portions of the Sikh hagiology and martyrology as well as the Sikh scriptures, there are discovered three distinct though not mutually exclusive stages in the religious life of a Sikh. The first stage is that of unselfish service, *Seva* and the second is a blending of *Seva* with a profound study of the principles of the Sikh gospel. Ample provision for a sound drilling in this stage was made by the establishment of Dharmasalas, Gurudwaras, *anguts*, and male as well as female preachers all over the land. In the final stage comes the baptism or *pahul*. Guru Govind Singh, the father of the Khalsa, in his jealousy for the purity of his followers, left no stone unturned to inculcate the truth by his soul-stirring *Swayyas* and by the additional incentive of the force of outward symbols. *Keshas* has got significant mention made of it in other creeds of the world and even the Bible inculcates that the uncut hair is the result of, and conducive to, manhood. The Mahomedan who is familiar with his scriptures would not deny that the keeping of long hair is among many of the good acts recommended by the prophet.

INDIA AFTER THE WAR.

Sir Daniel Hamilton, writing to the April number of the *Asiatic Review*, urges that precedence should be given to economic progress, if any changes for the betterment of the Indian people are to be made. The evil that has first to be eradicated is the power of the *Mahajan* which can be rooted out only by a still stronger power, *viz.*, co-operative credit societies. Out of the three quarters of a million villages in India, only about 12,000 have yet been permeated by the co-operative spirit. It is the duty of Government which borrows at 4 % for itself, not to allow the people to pay more for their debts. All that India asks for is a banking system of the people and an increased co-operative staff. Sir David proceeds still further in his suggestions for enlarging co-operation. He proposes that the salaries of the enlarged co-operative department may be met out of the profits on the currency. The currency reserve might be discarded, as any adverse occasional trade debt of India may be paid with gold treasury bills at sixteen pence per rupee *plus* interest, the bills being redeemed in gold after the trade balance turns in India's favour, as it always does when the bad time is over. This arrangement to settle an Indian adverse trade balance by means of treasury bills is on the same lines as the arrangement made by the Allies' financial experts for the settlement of Russia's present adverse trade balance.

In utilising the gold exchange reserve, the gold might be left where it is, and paper money issued against it; and this paper money might be used in the development of credit, in paying the salaries of the increased co-operative staff, in the construction of irrigation canals and in the provision of wells through the media of co-operative societies. If Government should see to it that this additional paper money is distributed in loans for construction of wells, etc., through the medium of the village co-operative societies, the notes would create their own security in addition to that in the gold reserve. In India, a system of note issues is the best introduction to a large system of deposit banking, and the village co-operative society is the best medium for the diffusion of paper money with its sequel, deposit banking. It is only a good banking system that would save the trader and producer from going to the *Mahajan*; and the man who grows the produce, retaining the price, is encouraged to grow more. Now the gold and silver which flow into India fall chiefly into the dead sea of the *Mahajan*.

GERMANISM IN AMERICA.

Mr. S. Perez Triana, writing in the April number of the *English Review*, exhorts the American nation to root out the spirit of Prussianism which has its preachers and votaries inside the temple of the Great Republic. Washington and the other founders of the Republic have, time and oft, repeated that the free Americans should always be jealous against the insidious wiles of foreign influence which is always a most baneful foe of Republican Government. The Republic should be free to advance unhindered and should stand primarily and essentially for liberty and democracy.

The attitude of the United States in the present war came as a surprise to Germany, which grew into bitter disappointment, and later turned into 'anger akin to hatred that brooks no passivity.'

A voice from Berlin sweeps across the ocean like a trumpet's blast; it is the command of the Master; it strikes the staccato idiosyncracies of submission; the master instantly requires the fealty of his wanderers; one, two, three generations in the atmosphere of liberty will not remould the character kneaded into blind obedience throughout the countless centuries. The guileless Republic, so trusting in the love of the weary footsore and hungry outcasts, whom she crowned with the rights of citizenship, and to whom she threw open the gates of power and of wealth, is thrust aside as an empty shell. The Vaterland reasserts her supremacy. *Deutschland uber Alles in der Welt*, such is the cry of the reawakened German soul after the short dream of freedom.

The Prussian voice thus cries :

Your numbers are millions; you are neither intruders nor idlers in the land, your brain and your muscle have helped to erect the mighty structure of its prosperity. You have trekked the desert, climbed the summits, explored the rivers and lakes, felled the forests, built the cities and in the hour of strife shed your life on a thousand battlefields . . . You are the forerunners of Empire—of the German Empire. You carry in your very bones the glorious Teutonic traditions, the undying spark of Teutonic virtue, fidelity and loyalty—*Deutsche Treue, Deutsche Ehre*, the stamp of our superior race. The world belongs to us. The hour has struck, when you must do your duty to your Fatherland. . . . Ply the vote like a weapon. Impose submission on the recalcitrant Executive. After victory we shall Germanise the continent and crush to atoms under our mailed fist the alleged Monroe talisman, so long and so irritatingly in our way. — *Vouretzts Marsch*.

Thus there is a grave internal danger for America, compared to which the War of Secession was harmless, and the American people should realise the gravity of the crisis and should root out the insidious wiles of foreign influence and not bend their knee to the God of Potsdam.

BUDDHIST PSYCHOLOGY.

Mr. Gerald Arundel writing in the April issue of the *Occult Review* expounds the ethical system of the Buddha which involves a peculiar system of thought no less valuable than interesting. Mrs. Rhys Davids in her recent work on Buddhist psychology has carefully explained the inner meanings of all Sutras of the *Nikayas* and has pointed out the differences and the resemblances between Buddhistic doctrines and the reasonings and conclusions of Greek philosophy. The ugly rock of offence in Buddha's philosophy is his presumed negation of the soul; the truth is that he does not absolutely deny the existence of individual soul, nor the theory of the persistence of the soul after bodily dissolution and decay, though it may often appear that he does. She maintains that at death there is a co-efficiency of the desire to enjoy, involving a clinging to or grasping after life wherewith to enjoy, and the dying pulsations produced their effect not in the corpse, but in some embryo waking at that moment to life—it might be in the next house, or it might be in some heaven or purgatory. With extremely few exceptions, all human entities cling to life at the last moment of bodily existence; and in the majority of cases the souls continue and preserve their identities. As each subsequent existence is determined by the quality of desire in the dying person, every soul gets that special rebirth which accords exactly with its condition at the moment of departure. Though the Buddha's conception of the soul differs from that of other philosophies and religions, it does not necessarily follow that he denies the existence of the individual soul. His opinions on the subject could not be determinately and unequivocally expressed, and they baffle all logical and ratiocinative methods, belonging more to psychic suggestion than to dilectics. Buddhist psychology is an ample maze of thoughts and suggestions—a maze in which the European reader is likely to lose himself. Mr. Gerald Arundel stresses on the great acumen with which the Buddhist Arahats have laboured in the science of psychology; and on the clearness with which Mrs. Rhys Davids has brought about the salient features in their system. Mrs. Rhys Davids is the most competent student of the subject in western Europe, and her book is particularly important and worthy of long study.

THE LAW OF NATIONS AND THE WAR.

Mr. J. F. Green, writing in the April number of *Positivist Review* about the Law of nations with reference to the present war, observes the various points in the laws and customs of warfare by sea and land which have been broken by the Germans. One of their earliest breaches was their refusal to recognise the Belgian 'Grade Civique' as lawful combatants in contravention of Article I. of the Hague Regulations. The bombardment of undefended towns or villages, dwellings or buildings by whatever means is prohibited by the Hague Regulations for land warfare and also by those respecting naval warfare. While Article XXVII. provides that all necessary steps must be taken to spare as far as possible buildings dedicated to religion, science, art, or charitable purposes, historic monuments, hospitals and places where the sick and wounded are being collected, provided they are not being used at the time for military purposes. Pillage is twice prohibited; and it is enunciated that money contributions levied in occupied territory shall only be for the needs of the army or of the administration of the territory in question, and they are also to be in proportion to the resources of the country. Another article says that no general penalty, pecuniary or otherwise, shall be inflicted on the population on account of the acts of individuals for which it cannot be regarded as collectively responsible. The belligerent should not make improper use, *inter alia* of the military insignia and uniform of the enemy. All these have been broken by Germany in the present war; while her laying of mines in the trade-routes, involving enormous danger to peaceful navigation, is a flagrant violation both of the letter and spirit of the Hague Conference of 1907. The recent German proclamation of blockade of the British Isles merits no such name and only means an announcement that Germany would run amok, whenever chance offered in the North Sea. It may be compared to the gigantic paper blockade of the Berlin Decree of 1806; while the right of the visit against merchant vessels in the blockaded area has degenerated now into sheer acts of torpedoing and destruction. The grave charges of mutilation and outrage that have been made by Belgian and French official committees of investigation against German troops are rather offences against the unwritten law of humanity than against international law.

QUESTIONS OF IMPORTANCE

THE BENGAL FLOATING HOSPITAL.

The naming ceremony or *namkaranam* of the floating hospital of the Bengal Ambulance Corps was performed on Saturday the 8th May in the presence of a large and representative gathering of European and Indian officials and non-officials by H. E. Lord Carmichael, who came specially from Darjeeling for this purpose. The vessel was lying moored opposite Prinsep's Ghat where the ceremony took place. Much interest centred in a contingent of some forty of the Ambulance Corps who form the *personnel* of the floating hospital.

The Maharajadhiraj of Burdwan, in inviting His Excellency to perform the ceremony, recounted the history of the Ambulance Scheme, expressing gratitude to His Excellency, Mr. Gourlay, Sir Pardey Lukis, and Col. Nott, I.M.S., at the successful result and also paid a tribute to the energy of Dr. Sarvadhikari and Babu B. N. Basu. The members of the Corps were all of good medical education and some of them had even given up lucrative civil employment for patriotic duty. The total cost was Rs. 2,10,000, of which Rs. 1,40,000 had been promised, Rs. 42,000 was already paid, and Rs. 70,000 was yet to be raised. The Maharajadhiraj promised to contribute one rupee for every nine raised to complete the total. The *Bengali* is one of the most admirably equipped vessels. Everything has been done to make the floating hospital a perfect model of its kind. The designs and the equipments are of the most up-to-date character and no pain or expense has been spared to make the floating hospital as self-sufficing as possible. She is a flat with two decks of about 200 feet in length and 20 feet in width with a two-foot draft. She can accommodate 1,000 men and 4,000 tons of cargo. On the Upper Deck will be placed the Hospital consisting of 100 beds, two operating rooms, one sterilizing room, and an X-Ray room with an enclosure for microscopic work. Besides these, there will be segregation wards, sanitary conveniences, dressing rooms, etc. The Lower Deck will accommodate officers, men and camp followers, and will have the dispensary, store rooms, etc., located there. The ship will be lighted by electricity throughout and will have a number of electric fans. It will also have an ice machine, refrigerators, motor ambulance and other up-to-date contrivances and conveniences, such as lifts, etc. Regarding the significance of the movement, he said :—

It is true that a larger scheme has been shelved, or rather abandoned and in consequence of that the spirit of a large number of patriotic Bengalis has been damped. But whilst regretting that fact, whilst still thinking that it was a great mistake that regular volunteers from Bengal were not allowed to be constituted to go to the field of action, we are grateful for the smaller achievement and every Bengali should be proud of this national offer. It marks the beginning of a new and memorable era. The young men who are going in this ship prove that Bengali boys have got real grit in them and that, if properly moulded and trained, they can be worthy of being regulars in the military services of the King-Emperor.

H. E. the Governor in the course of his reply began with reading the following telegram from H. E. the Viceroy :—

I understand that you are to-morrow to perform the ceremony of naming the Floating Hospital, calling it the *Bengali*. I should be greatly obliged if you would take the opportunity to give my most grateful thanks on behalf of the King-Emperor to Bengal for their most useful gift of an Ambulance Corps. I warmly congratulate the organisers on the successful outcome of their efforts, and wish the *Bengali* and her staff all success in their work of mercy.

After thanking the organisers and Sir Pardey Lukis, H. E. the Governor pointed out why the original proposals were rejected and how the present form was due to H. E. the Viceroy, who was convinced of the necessity for such a hospital flat after his return from the Persian Gulf. Continuing, His Excellency said :—

Whatever ups and downs there may be in this way, whatever be its results—though we believe there can be but one result, however much of honour it may bring to the Empire, however much of sorrow it may bring to individual subjects of the King-Emperor—it has already brought above one good thing, and that as days go by it will be made even more clear. It has brought England and India into closer touch. Your people and my people have fought together in the same battles; and the glory of those battles will be shared for all time alike by Indians and by Englishmen. Indians and Englishmen are together mourning and will mourn the loss of friends and relations whose blood has mingled in their death. There are things—there always must be things—on which Indians and Englishmen will not see eye to eye. We have all of us been at times—we shall continue at times to be—inclined to lay too much stress on these things; it is a gain—a great gain—that from now forwards much will remind us that we sympathise each with the other.

His Excellency then exhorted the young men of Bengal on their loyalty and patriotism and concluded :—

Now, gentlemen, I have very great pleasure in calling this hospital flat by the name which you all love and which I have during the last three years also learned to love, *Bengali*.

INDIANS AND THE VICTORIA CROSS.

The Victoria Cross is an Order of Merit for conspicuous valour awarded to members of the British Army and Navy. The Order was instituted in 1856 and the Cross carries with it a pension of £10 a year to non-commissioned officers and men with an extra £5 for every bar. For the first time in the history of British India, Indian soldiers of mark have been awarded this distinction in accordance with the memorable boon of H. M. King George on the occasion of the Delhi Durbar in 1911. His Majesty's message on the subject runs:—"Furthermore His Imperial Majesty has been graciously pleased to ordain that from henceforth the loyal native officers, men and Reservists of his Indian Army shall be eligible for the grant of the Victoria Cross, etc." Accordingly in the present war, four Indian soldiers have already won the Victoria Cross: Ganga Singh, Khudadad Khan, Darwan Sing Negi and rifleman Gobur Singh Negi. The last hero, it is sad to think, did not live to receive the reward of his valour. Now of the four Victoria Crosses awarded to Indian soldiers, three have been won by Rajputs, who have thus vindicated their traditional chivalry. Of these three two belong to the heroic Rajput hillmen who form the 39th Garhwal Rifles. The ancestors of the present race of Garhwalis like those of the Gurkhas, emigrated from Rajputana and settled in Garhwal on the borders of Tibet seven hundred years ago. The Garhwali bears a close resemblance to the Gurkha with the exception of the curls, and yields to none in courage and physical endurance. Dressed in a home-spun woollen blanket, with strong bare legs and arms, his curly black locks often touching his shoulders, and a non-descript-cap stuck jauntily on one side surmounting the whole, the untamed recruit, says Colonel Roberts in the *London Field*, is a most picturesque figure.

Of the three Indian V.Cs, Havildar Darwan Singh returned from the front and reached Bombay on the 18th February. He reached Kolidwar, Garhwal, on the 27th of February and was welcomed with great enthusiasm by the Garhwal public. The wounds of the hero have all healed up and he is still a young man of thirty-four. We understand that the Garhwal Sabha has opened a Fund to be utilised for a perpetual memorial of the hero.

The story of how Naik (now Havildar) Darwan Sing Negi, of the 1st Battalion, 39th Garh-

wal Rifles, won his Victoria Cross on the night of 23rd-24th November, 1914, will long be remembered, writes Lt.-Col. M. H. Roberts, who has retired from the 39th Garhwal Rifles. The two Battalions of the Regiment were marching to billets on 23rd November for a well-earned rest after some 25 days of continuous duty in the trenches when they were suddenly recalled to another part of the firing line, where the Germans had occupied a certain portion of our trenches, and repeated efforts had failed to drive them out of this trench. The line of trenches had to be taken at all costs. The attack was made by the 1st Battalion with the 2nd Battalion in support, and it was at first led by a gallant little party of two British officers and some Afridis, well supplied with bombs, who cleared the way for the head of the attacking Double Company.

Then Naik Darwan Sing went ahead of his section leading a bayonet charge from traverse to traverse. Three times he was wounded by bombs thrown at him on these exposed traverses, but, nothing daunted, he led on till at 4 a.m. on 24th the whole length of some 300 yards of trench was once again in our hands. A great many Germans were killed and 105 were taken prisoners, while two machine guns, a trench mortar and many rifles and other equipments were captured. The Report adds that Naik Darwan Sing Negi was awarded the V. C. "for great gallantry on the night of November 23 to 24 near Festubert in France when the regiment was engaged in retaking and clearing the enemy out of our trenches, and although wounded in two places in the head and also in the arms, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and rifles at the closest range."

Luckily Naik Darwan Sing's wounds did not prove to be severe and he merely had them dressed daily without ever being admitted into hospital, for on 5th December (eleven days after the action) he was brought before His Majesty the King-Emperor, who most graciously presented the coveted Cross with his own hands. It was with reference to this incident that H. E. the Viceroy said: "It has also been a source of great pride to us all, that in accordance with the boon announced at the King-Emperor's Durbar, two Victoria Crosses have already been awarded to brave Indian soldiers, this much-coveted decoration having in one case been bestowed by the hand of the King Emperor himself."

UTTERANCES OF THE DAY

MR. GANDHI'S SPEECHES IN SOUTH INDIA.

In the last number of *The Indian Review* we gave an account of Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi's welcome reception in Madras and their numerous engagements. The heroes of the day were the recipients of a series of addresses which began with the one presented by the Indian South African League under the presidency of Dr. Sir S. Subramania Aiyer, at the Victoria Public Hall, on Wednesday the 21st. April. On the election of the Chairman, Mr. G. A. Natesan read a letter received from the Right Rev. Lord Bishop of Madras, President of the League, expressing regret at his inability to attend the meeting owing to some important business outside Madras and conveying his deep sympathy with the meeting to welcome Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi, "who had carried on their noble struggle in South Africa on behalf of their fellow-countrymen and won their admiration for the courage, endurance, self-restraint and self-denial which they had displayed throughout that great struggle."

Dr. Sir S. Subramania Aiyer in opening the proceedings of the meeting regarded Mr. Gandhi as one of the greatest sons of India, (cheers) one who has done more than any other to raise the Motherland in the estimation of the whole world, (cheers), who has more than any other living man saved the Indian people from contumely and obtained for them some amount of consideration and respect. "We are here," said he, "to welcome Mr. Gandhi, whose name is a household word throughout the length and breadth of the land and also to welcome Mrs. Gandhi who has shared with him all his struggles, distresses and sufferings and his defeats and triumphs so nobly as to bring upon Indian womanhood a great lustre" (cheers).

Mr. G. A. Natesan then read the following welcome address to Mr. Gandhi:—

HONOURED AND BELOVED SIR,—We welcome you most cordially to the City and Presidency of Madras, which are proud to be the birthplace of some of your compatriots in South Africa, and not the least steadfast and sturdy among them.

In the ample roll of those that have served this common Motherland of ours, few can rival and none excel you in the record of things accomplished. The maintenance of a bitter and acrimonious political struggle for the best part of a generation on behalf of a poor and down-trodden people in a land where, in a just and righteous world, they should not have been treated as foreigners, and the crowning of the struggle by honour-

able success without a drop of bloodshed by the sufferers and without a stain on their loyalty or good faith—is an achievement for which it is difficult to find a parallel in history. More than the achievement, however, is the means employed by you in the unequal struggle. To brute force aided by the arts of diplomacy you resolved, incredible as it seems even now, to oppose soul force, choosing for vehicles men and women who would have appeared to others most unpromising material. Borne up by faith in God, the justice of their cause, and your wisdom, they heroically braved, and in some cases, joyfully welcomed spoliation, and abuse, the gaol and the rod, and every form of persecution. The potency of passive resistance as a means of redressing serious wrongs has been for the first time demonstrated in the history of the world. The name of Indian is no longer one of abasement and humiliation, whether in South Africa or the rest of the British Empire. For yourself, by complete mastery and effacement of self, by adoption of simple and severe ideals of life, by exercise of indomitable will-power in the stern and unswerving pursuit of those ideals, by sweetness and gentleness and loving tenderness to humanity that knows no distinction of race, sex, age, wealth or physical appearance, you embody to the present generation the godliness and profound wisdom of a saint. Mrs. Gandhi is to us the incarnation of wifely virtue, living in and for her husband, and following him like a shadow in plenty and in poverty in joy and in tribulation, at home, in gaol, and on the march. (?) We cannot help thinking also of your sons, not born to rank or wealth, but heirs of a name synonymous with rectitude, love of country and service of humanity. May God keep them long and you with them in His Grace!

Once more, Beloved Sir, we welcome Mrs. Gandhi and you to Madras with loving and affectionate hearts.

Mr. Gandhi in acknowledging the address rose amidst deafening cheers and said:—

Mr. Chairman and Friends,—On behalf of my wife and myself I am deeply grateful for the great honour that you here in Madras, and, may I say, this Presidency, have done to us and the affection that has been lavished upon us in this great and enlightened.—

NOT BENIGHTED—PRESIDENCY.

If there is anything that we have deserved, as has been stated in this beautiful address, I can only say I lay it at the feet of my Master under whose inspiration I have been working all this time under exile in South Africa. (Hear, hear.) In so far as the sentiments expressed in this address are merely prophetic, Sir, I accept them as a blessing and as a prayer from you and from this great meeting that both my wife and I myself may possess the power, the inclination, and the life to dedicate whatever we may develop in this sacred land of ours to the service of the Motherland. (Cheers.) It is no wonder that we have come to Madras. As my friend, Mr. Natesan, will perhaps tell you, we have been overdue and we have neglected Madras. But we have done nothing of the kind. We knew that we had a corner in your hearts and we knew that you will not misjudge us if we did not hasten

to Madras before going to the other presidencies and to other towns. * * * The drafters of this beautiful address have, I venture to say, exaggerated the importance of the little work that I was able to do in South Africa out of all proportion (cries of no, no). As I have said on so many platforms, India has been still suffering under the hypnotic influences produced upon it by that great saintly politician, Mr. Gokhale. (Cheers.) He issued in my favour a certificate which you have taken at its surface value, and it is that certificate which has placed me in a most embarrassing position, because I do not know that I shall be able to answer the expectations that have been raised about myself, and about my wife in the work that lies before us in the future on behalf of this country. But Sir, if one-tenth of the language that has been used in this address is deserved by us what language do you propose to use for those who have lost their lives, and therefore finished their work on behalf of your suffering countrymen in South Africa? What language do you propose to use for Nagappan and Narayanasawmy, lads of seventeen or eighteen years, who braved in simple faith all the trials, all the sufferings, and all the indignities for the sake of the honour of the Motherland. (Cheers.) What language do you propose to use with reference to Villiamma, that sweet girl of seventeen years who was discharged from Maritzburg prison, skin and bone, suffering from fever to which she succumbed after about a month's time. (Cries of shame.)

THE MADRASSIS.

It was the Madrassis who of all the Indians were singled out by the great Divinity that rules over us for this great work. Do you know that in the great city of Johannesburg, it is considered among the Madrassis to find a single Madrassi dishonoured if he has not passed through the jails once or twice during this terrible crisis that your countrymen in South Africa went through during these eight long years? You have said that I inspired these great men and women, but I cannot accept that proposition. It was they, the simple minded folk, who worked away in faith, never expecting the slightest reward, who inspired me, who kept me to the proper level, and who compelled me by their great sacrifice, by their great faith, by their great trust in the great God to do the work that I was able to do. (Cheers.) It is my misfortune that I and my wife have been obliged to work in the lime light, and you have magnified out of all proportion (cries of No! No!!) this little work we have been able to do. Believe me, my dear friends, that if you consider, whether in India or in South Africa, it is possible for us, poor mortals, the same individuals, the same stuff of which you are made, if you consider that it is possible for us to do anything whatsoever without your assistance, and without your doing, the same thing that we would be prepared to do, you are lost, and we are also lost, and our services will be in vain, I do not for one moment believe that the inspiration was given by us. The inspiration was given by them to us, and we were able to be interpreters between the powers who called themselves the Governors and those men for whom redress was so necessary. We were simply links between those two parties and nothing more. It was my duty, having received the education that was given to me by my parents, to interpret what was going on in our midst to those simple folk, and they rose to the occasion. They realised the importance of birth in India, they realised the might of religious force, and it was they who inspired us, and let them who have

finished their work, and who have died for you and me, let them inspire you and us. We are still living, and who knows whether the devil will not possess us to-morrow and we shall not forsake the post of duty before any new danger that may face us. But these three have gone for ever.

THE REST OF INDIA.

An oil man of 75 from the United Provinces, Hardut Singh, has also joined the majority and died in jail in South Africa, and he deserved the crown that you would seek to impose upon us. These young men deserve all the adjectives that you have so affectionately, but blindly lavished upon us. It was not only the Hindus who struggled, but there were Mahomedans, Parsis and Christians, and almost every part of India was represented in the struggle. They realised the common danger, and they realised also what their destiny was as Indians, and it was they, and they alone, who matched the soul-force against the physical forces. (Loud applause.)

MR. GANDHI AT THE LAW DINNER.

At the annual gathering of the Madras Law Dinner, Mr. M. K. Gandhi was specially invited to propose the toast of the British Empire. The Hon. the Advocate General in doing so referred to Mr. Gandhi as a very distinguished stranger, a stranger in the sense that they had not known him long, but one whose name they were all familiar with. Mr. Gandhi was a member of the profession, though he had not lately practised. Mr. Gandhi, he continued, was about to propose the toast of the British Empire, for the consolidation of which he had laboured strenuously, with absolute self-devotion for many years. Mr. Gandhi said: —

LOYALTY TO THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

During my three months' tour in India, as also in South Africa, I have been so often questioned how I, a determined opponent of modern civilisation and an avowed patriot, could reconcile myself to loyalty of the British Empire of which India was such a large part; how it was possible for me to find it consistent that India and England could work together for mutual benefit. It gives me the greatest pleasure this evening at this great and important gathering, to re-declare my loyalty to this British Empire, and my loyalty is based upon very selfish grounds. As a passive resister I discovered that a passive resister has to make good his claim to passive resistance, no matter under what circumstances he finds himself, and I discovered that the British Empire had certain ideals with which I have fallen in love, and one of those ideals is that every subject of the British Empire has the freest scope possible for his energies and honour and whatever he thinks is due to his conscience. I think that this is true of the British Empire, as it is not true of any other Government. (Applause.) I feel, as you here perhaps know, that I am no lover of any Government and I have more than once said that that Government is best which governs least. And I have found that it is possible for me to be governed least under the British Empire. Hence my loyalty to the British Empire. (Loud applause.)

MR. GANDHI AND STUDENTS.

The students of Madras displayed a beautiful enthusiasm in their welcome of Mr. Gandhi. Mr. Gandhi's especial delight in the company of students is well-known and it is no wonder that their response was wholehearted. A crowded gathering of students was assembled on the 27th evening at the Y.M.C.A. when the students of Madras presented an address to him. Before the proceedings began, the song of the *Bandematuram* was sung by a chorus of Bengali gentlemen who were present on the occasion. The Hon. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar who presided on the occasion paid an eloquent tribute to the distinguished guests.

In accepting the students' address Mr. Gandhi spoke as follows :—

THE REAL EDUCATION.

You, the Students of Madras as well as the students all over India, are you receiving an education which will make you worthy to realise that ideal and which will draw the best out of you, or is it an education which has become a factory for making Government employees or clerks in commercial offices? Is the goal of the education that you are receiving mere services, mere employment whether in the Government departments or other departments? If that be the goal of your Education, if that is the goal that you have set before yourselves, I feel and I fear, that the vision that the poet pictured for himself is far from being realised. As you have heard me say perhaps, or as you have read, I am and I have been a determined opponent of modern civilisation. I want you to turn your eyes to-day upon what is going on in Europe and if you have come to the conclusion that Europe is to-day groaning under the heels of that modern civilisation then you and your elders will have to think twice before you can emulate that civilisation in our Motherland. But I have been told: "How can we help it, seeing that our rulers bring that culture to our Motherland." Do not make any mistake about it at all. I do not for one moment believe that it is for any rulers to bring that culture to you, unless you are prepared to accept it, and if it be that the rulers bring that culture before us, I think, that we have forces within ourselves to enable us to reject that culture without having to reject the rulers themselves (applause). I have said on many a platform that the British race is with us. I decline to go into the reasons why that race is with us, but I do believe that it is possible for India if she would but live up to the traditions of the sages of whom you have heard from our worthy president, to transmit a message through this great race, a message not of physical might, but a message of love. And then, it will be your privilege to conquer the conquerors not by shedding blood but by sheer force of spiritual predominance. When I consider what is going on to-day in India, I think it is necessary for us to say what our opinion is in connection with the political assassinations and political dacoities. I feel that these are purely a foreign importation which cannot take root in this land. But you the student world have to beware, lest mentally or morally you give one thought of approval

to this kind of terrorism. I, as a passive resister, will give you another thing very substantial for it. Terrorise yourself; search within; by all means resist tyranny wherever you find it; by all means resist encroachment upon your liberty, but not by shedding the blood of the tyrant. That is not what is taught by our religion. Our religion is based upon *ahimsa*, which in its active form is nothing but Love, love not only to your neighbours, not only to your friends, but love even to those who may be your enemies.

One word more in connection with the same thing. I think that if we were to practise truth, to practise *ahimsa*, we must immediately see that we also practise fearlessness. If our rulers are doing what in our opinion is wrong, and if we feel it our duty to let them hear our advice, even though it may be considered sedition, I urge you to speak sedition—but at your peril, you must be prepared to suffer the consequences. And when you are ready to suffer the consequences and not hit below the belt, then I think you will have made good your right to have your advice heard even by the Government.

RIGHTS AND DUTIES.

I ally myself to the British Government, because I believe that it is possible for me to claim equal partnership with every subject of the British Empire. I to-day claim that equal partnership. I do not belong to a subject race, I do not call myself a subject race. (Applause.) But there is this thing: it is not for the British Governors to give you, it is for you to take the thing. I want and I can take the thing. That I want only by discharging my obligations. Max Muller has told us,—we need not go to Max Muller to interpret our own religion—but he says, our religion consists in four letters "D-u-t-y" and not in the five letters "R-i-g-h-t". And if you believe that all that we want can flow from a better discharge of our duty, then think always of your duty and fighting along those lines you will have no fear of any man, you will fear only God. That is the message that my master—if I may say so, your master too—Mr. Gokhale has given to us. What is that message then? It is in the constitution of the Servants of India Society and that is the message by which I wish to be guided in my life. The message is to spiritualise the political life and the political institutions of the country. We must immediately set about realising its practice. Then students cannot be away from politics. Politics is as essential to them as religion. Politics cannot be divorced from religion. My views may not be acceptable to you, I know. All the same. I can only give you what is stirring me to my very depths. On the authority of my experiences in South Africa I claim that your countrymen who had not that modern culture, but who had that strength of the Rishis of old, who have inherited the *tapascharya* performed by the Rishis, without having known a single word of English literature and without knowing anything whatsoever of the present modern culture, they were able to rise to their full height. And what has been possible for the uneducated and illiterate countrymen of ours in South Africa is ten times possible for you and for me to-day in this sacred land of ours. May that be your privilege and may that be my privilege. (Applause.)

PROVINCIAL CONGRESS COMMITTEE.

The Members of the Madras Mahajana Sabha and the Provincial Congress Committee met in large numbers at the residence of the Hon. Nawab Syed Mahommed Bahadur on the 26th April to welcome Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi to the City of Madras. The Hon. Nawab Syed read an address of welcome to which Mr. Gandhi replied in felicitous language. With his wonted modesty he said that "it is distance that lends enchantment to the view," and implored his countrymen to judge his future work in the generous spirit characteristic of their race.

BRAHMINS AND PANCHAMAS.

Mr. and Mrs. Gandhi on their way to Tranquebar arrived at Mayavaram on the 2nd May, and they were presented with an address by the citizens of the town. In the course of his reply Mr. Gandhi said :—

It was quite by accident that I had the great pleasure of receiving an address from my 'Panchama brethren,' and there, they said that they were without convenience for drinking water, they were without convenience for living supplies, and they could not buy or hold land. It was difficult for them even to approach courts. Probably, the last is due to their fear, but a fear certainly not due to themselves, and who is then responsible for this state of things? Do we propose to perpetuate this state of things? Is it a part of Hinduism? I do not know. I have now to learn what Hinduism really is. In so far as I have been able to study Hinduism outside India, I have felt that it is no part of real Hinduism to have in its hold a mass of people whom I would call "untouchables". If it was proved to me that this is an essential part of Hinduism, I, for one, would declare myself an open rebel against Hinduism itself. (Hear, hear.)

Are the Brahmins in Mayavaram equiminded towards the Pariah and will they tell me, if they are so equiminded and if so, will they tell me if others will not follow? Even if they say that they are prepared to do so but others will not follow, I shall have to disbelieve them until I have revised my notions of Hinduism. If the Brahmins themselves consider they are holding high position by penance and posterity, then they have themselves much to learn, then they will be the people who have cursed and ruined the land.

MR. GANDHI AND THE LEADERS.

My friend, the Chairman, has asked me the question whether it is true that I am at war with my leaders. I say that I am not at war with my leaders. I seemed to be at war with my leaders because many things I have heard seem to be inconsistent with my notions of self-respect and with self-respect to my Motherland. I feel that they are probably not discharging the sacred trust they have taken upon their shoulders; but I am not sure I am studying or endeavouring to take wisdom from them, but I failed to take that wisdom. It may be that I am incompetent and unfit to follow them. So, I shall revise my ideas. Still I am in a position to say that I seem to be at war with my leaders. Whatever

they do or whatever they say does not somehow or other appeal to me. The major part of what they say does not seem to be appealing to me.

ENGLISH AND THE VERNACULARS.

I find here words of welcome in the English language. I find in the Congress programme a Resolution on Swadeshi. If you hold that you are Swadeshi and yet print these in English, then I am not Swadeshi. To me it seems that it is inconsistent. I have nothing to say against the English language. But I do say that, if you kill the vernaculars and raise the English language on the tomb of the vernaculars (hear, hear), then you are not favouring Swadeshi in the right sense of the term. If you feel that I do not know Tamil, you should pardon me, you should excuse me and teach me and ask me to learn Tamil and by having your welcome in that beautiful language, if you translate it to me, then I should think you are performing some part of the programme. Then only I should think I am being taught Swadeshi.

SWADESHI ENTERPRISE.

I asked when we were passing through Mayavaram whether there have been any handlooms here and whether there were handloom weavers here. I was told that there were 50 handlooms in Mayavaram. What were they engaged in? They were simply engaged chiefly in preparing "Sarees" for our women. Then is Swadeshi to be confined only to the women? Is it to be only in their keeping? I do not find that our friends, the male population also have their stuff prepared for them in these by these weavers and through their handlooms, (a voice there are thousand handlooms here.). There are, I understand, one thousand handlooms so much the worse for the leaders! (Loud applause.) If these one thousand handlooms are kept chiefly in attending to the wants of our women, double this supply of our handlooms and you will have all your wants supplied by your own weavers and there will be no poverty in the land. I ask you and ask our friend the President how far he is indebted to foreign goods for his outfit and if he can tell me that he has tried his utmost and still has failed to outfit himself or rather to fit himself out with Swadeshi clothing and therefore he has got this stuff, I shall sit at his feet and learn a lesson. What I have been able to learn to-day is that it is entirely possible for me, not with any extra cost to fit myself with Swadeshi clothing. How am I to learn through those who move or who are supposed to be movers in the Congress, the secret of the Resolution. I sit at the feet of my leaders, I sit at the feet of Mayavaram people and let them reveal the mystery, give me the secret of the meaning, teach me how I should behave myself and tell me whether it is a part of the National movement that I should drive off those who are without dwellings, who cry for water and that I should reject the advances of those who cry for food. These are the questions which I ask my friends here. Since I am saying something against you, I doubt whether I shall still enjoy or retain the affection of the student population and whether I shall still retain the blessing of my leaders. I ask you to have a large heart and give me a little corner in it. I shall try to steal into that corner. If you would, be kind enough to teach me the wisdom. I shall learn the wisdom in all humility and in all earnestness. I am praying for it and I am asking for it. If you cannot teach me, I again declare myself at war with my leaders. (Loud cheers.)

AT THE NELLORE CONFERENCE.

Replying to a Resolution moved by Mr. G. A. Natesan at the Madras Provincial Conference at Nellore, Mr. Gandhi said :—

It was an accident that this Resolution followed on two Resolutions, one with reference to his revered master and the other with reference to the noble Viceroy to whom a fitting tribute had been paid by the President. He was there free to acknowledge the indebtedness of his countrymen in South Africa to the noble Viceroy. If his wife and he were worthy of anything that had been said on this platform and on many a platform, he had repeated, and he was there again to repeat, that they owed all to the inspiration they derived from Indian sources, for it was Mr. Gokhale, his love, and his message, that had been his guiding star, and would still remain his guiding star. He would appeal to them not to spoil him and his wife by taking away from the services they had to render by overpraising them. He would make this simple, but humble, appeal. Let what he and his wife had done in South Africa be buried there. Their countrymen in South Africa would know what had been done. It was impossible for any one, much less for them, to trade on any reputation made in South Africa. He feared that by overpraising them, they might raise enormous expectations about him and his wife that they might in the end, he would not say it was hardly likely, meet with disappointment.

MR. GANDHI AT BANGALORE.

In reply to the citizens' address Mr. Gandhi made the following speech at Bangalore :—

THE REWARD OF PUBLIC LIFE.

I did not want to be dragged in the carriage. There is a meaning in that. Let us not spoil our public men by dragging them. Let them work silently. We should not encourage the thought, that one has to work, because one will be honoured similarly. Let public men feel that they will be stoned, they will be neglected and let them still love the country; for service is its own reward. A charge has been brought against us that we as a nation are too demonstrative and lack business-like methods. We plead guilty to the charge. Are we to copy modern activities or are we to copy the ancient civilisation which has survived so many shocks. You and I have to act on the political platform from a spiritual side and if this is done, we should then conquer the conquerors. The day will dawn then, when we can consider an Englishman as a fellow citizen (Cheers.). That day will shortly come; but it may be difficult to conceive when. I have had signal opportunities of associating myself with Englishmen of character, devotion, nobility and influence. I can assure you that the present wave of activity is passing away and a new civilisation is coming shortly which will be a nobler one. India is a great dependency and Mysore is a great Native State. It must be possible for you to transmit this message to British Governors, and to British statesmen; the message is "Establish a Ram Rajya in Mysore and have as your minister a Vasishtha who will command obedience." (prolonged cheers.) My fellow countrymen, —then you can dictate terms to the conqueror (prolonged cheers).

MR. GANDHI ON MR. GOKHALE.

In unveiling the portrait of Mr. Gokhale, Mr. Gandhi spoke as follows :—

My dear countrymen,—Before I perform this ceremony to which you have called me, I wish to say this to you that you have given me a great opportunity or rather a privilege on this great occasion. I saw in the recitation,—the beautiful recitation that was given to me,—that God is with them whose garment was dusty and tattered. My thoughts immediately went to the end of my garment; I examined and found that it is not dusty and it is not tattered; it is fairly spotless and clean. God is not in me. There are other conditions attached; but in these conditions too I may fail; and you, my dear countrymen, may also fail; and if we do tend this well, we should not dishonour the memory of one whose portrait you have asked me to unveil this morning. I have declared myself his disciple in the political field and I have him as my *Rajya Guru*; and this I claim on behalf of the Indian people. It was in 1896 that I made this declaration, and I do not regret having made the choice.

Mr. Gokhale taught me that the dream of every Indian who claims to love his country, should be to act in the political field, should be not to glorify in language, but to spiritualise the political life of the country, and the political institutions of the country. He inspired my life and is still inspiring; and in that I wish to purify myself and spiritualise myself. I have dedicated myself to that ideal. I may fail, and to what extent I may fail, I call myself to that extent an unworthy disciple of my master.

SPIRITUALISING THE POLITICAL LIFE.

What is the meaning of spiritualising the political life of the country? What is the meaning of spiritualising myself? That question has come before me often and often and to you it may seem one thing, to me it may seem another thing; it may mean different things to the different members of the Servants of India Society itself. It shows much difficulty and it shows the difficulties of all those who want to love their country, who want to serve their country and who want to honour their country. I think the political life must be an echo of private life and that there cannot be any divorce between the two.

I was by the side of that saintly politician to the end of his life and I found no ego in him. I ask you members of the Social Service League, if there is no ego in you. If he wanted to shine,—he wanted to shine in the political field of his country,—he did so not in order that he might gain public applause, but in order that his country may gain. He developed every particular faculty in him, not in order to win the praise of the world for himself, but in order that his country may gain. He did not seek public applause, but they were showered upon him, they were thrust upon him; he wanted that his country may gain and that was his great inspiration.

There are many things for which India is blamed, very rightly, and if you should add one more to our failures the blame will descend not only on you but also on me for having participated in to-day's functions. But I have great faith in my countrymen.

You ask me to unveil this portrait to-day, and I will do so in all sincerity and sincerity should be the end of your life. (Loud and continued applause.)

INDIANS OUTSIDE INDIA.

THE RETURNED EMIGRANTS.

We understand that at the instance of the Punjab Government a few local centres in the province have formed district *jirgas* of about thirty members, mainly composed of Zaildars, Lumbardars and principal Sardars of the District, to enquire into the grievances of the returned emigrants. Under the district *jirgas* there are small *jirgas* for each one of the smaller units or *ilagas* composed of the Zaildar, the Lumbardar and a leading Sardar of the *ilaga* who will enter into friendly intercourse with the returned emigrants and ascertain their difficulties, hardships and grievances. These will be brought forward for discussion in the district *jirga* presided over by the Deputy Commissioner and recommendations made to the Government to ameliorate their lot. These conciliatory and generous measures were recommended by the Punjab Press soon after the ill-fated riot at Budge Budge. Says an up-country contemporary with perfect knowledge of local affairs that "much of the recent trouble could have been prevented if the Local Government had adopted the present plan about the time of announcing the result of the *Komagata Maru* enquiry. The Government did not take in the co-operation of non-officials in receiving and settling quietly the returned emigrants. Who can say that with a little more foresight the Government could not have organised these district and local *jirgas* four or five months ago? We welcome the present arrangement on the principle of better late than never, and hope that the *jirgas* will help both the Government and the distressed among the returned emigrants."

INDIANS IN FLANDERS.

Mr. S. M. Mitra writes in the *Daily News and Leader*:—"Would it not be advisable to lighten the burden of the British officers by allowing the Indian native soldiers in France or Flanders, Subedars, Jemadars, etc., to share the labours and danger with them? In the present war on the continent both Moslem and Hindu soldiers have won the much-coveted Victoria Cross, and have inspired wholesome dread in German hearts, and it would seem a fitting reward if such Indian officers as are considered well-qualified were given commissioned ranks in Indian native regiments in France or Flanders."

INDIAN TRADERS AT THE CAPE.

Mr. V. A. Pillay, of Port Elizabeth, writes as follows to a recent issue of the *Eastern Province Herald*. Mr. Pillai complains of the colour bar still persisting in that far away land:—

"At the last City Council meeting several applications for general dealers' licences were considered. Of the sixteen Europeans who applied, fourteen were granted licences, and the other two applications were deferred for further consideration. Two Indians were refused a licence. One European and three Indians applied for the transfer of licences. The European obtained the necessary permission, whilst the Indians were refused. Further, another three Indians applied for green grocers' licences, and not one was granted.

"As far as the Committee responsible is concerned, I think it advisable that they should show a spirit of justice to those Indians who have the means to trade."

INDIANS IN BRITISH COLONIES.

The Government Emigration Department has just brought out a number of Blue Books describing the regulations and customs that govern the transference of labour from India to Ceylon, to Malay States, and to the British Crown Colonies of Fiji, Guinea, Trinidad, Jamaica and to Dutch Guiana; from these it appears that in Fiji the Indian immigrants often settle down after their period of indenture expires. The Fiji Government Report for 1913 states that over 25,000 acres were under cultivation by Indians who had settled in that colony after termination of their indentures; and such Indians also owned 18,500 head of horses and cattle in addition to other live stock. The above alone represent relatively large sums when it is remembered that the total was scarcely 36,000 and, of these 13,600—being indentured—had been less than 5 years in the country. However, in addition to the above, the Indians' savings in the local banks at the end of 1913 totalled over Rs. 300,000 and the remittances to India during the year reached Rs. 79,000. Further, those who returned to India during 1913 brought back with them a total amount of Rs. 2,50,000 and last year those who returned brought with them about Rs. 4,00,000.

FEUDATORY INDIA

"SCINDIA" AMBULANCE CARS.

The "Indian Ambulance Gazette" referring to His Highness the Maharaja Scindia's Christmas gift says :—

"The "Scindia" motor ambulance fleet, the Christmas gift of Major-General His Highness the Maharaja Scindia of Gwalior to the Army and Navy, consisting of 41 ambulance cars, four cars for officers, five motor-lorries and repair wagons, and ten motor-cycles, after being formally accepted by the King-Emperor, has now been handed over to the proper authorities, and it is understood that it will be sent to the seat of war almost immediately. The ambulance cars, each of which carries four stretchers, and the officers' cars, were built by the Sunbeam Company. The lorries are Daimlers and the motor-cycles Triumphs. The cars are white throughout, and upon each, as well as upon the cycles, is a brass plate bearing the inscription "Maharaja Scindia's Gift to the Soldiers and Sailors, Christmas, 1914." The total cost of the fleet was £25,000.

"It may be added that in addition to this magnificent gift the Maharaja is providing in conjunction with the Begum of Bhopal the hospital-ship *Lofalty*, and that His Highness has also made the following further contributions :—

- £10,000 for the National Relief Fund.
- £15,000 for motor transport.
- £6,000 for Belgian refugees.
- £5,000 for officers' motor-cars.
- £1,000 for telescopes.
- £1,000 for Queen's Needle-work Guild.
- £1,000 for Princes Mary's Fund."

A STATE LIBRARY IN MYSORE.

At Sir Seshadri Memorial Hall, Bangalore, Sir Leslie Miller, Chief Judge of Mysore, recently opened the first public library for the province. The question of starting such State libraries was first brought forward by the Education Committee of the Mysore Economic Conference in April 1912, and in July 1914; the Government sanctioned the opening of libraries in Bangalore and Mysore, providing for the former a sum of Rs. 20,000 for the purchase of books and other initial expenditure and an annual recurring grant of Rs. 1,50,000. We understand that books to the value of Rs. 14,000 have already been ordered.

INDIAN PRINCES AND THE TATA WORKS.

Writing about Tata Electric Works, Bombay, the *British India Trade Journal* says :—"The Tata Electric Works in Bombay are now an accomplished fact. It is interesting to learn that part of the capital outlay on this great venture has been found by native princes. Part of Tata's other great venture, too, at Sakchi has been backed by several native princes. This shows that Indian Chiefs are learning to employ their immense fortunes to the advancement of the economic position of their country. Among them the Maharaja of Mysore, the Thakur Sahib of Morvi, the Maharaja Scindia of Gwalior, the Gaekwar, and the Nizam, deserve special mention.

THE STATE OF SACHIN.

The latest addition to the list of progressive Native States of India is the small little Mahomedan State of Sachin in Gujarat. One of the boons conferred by his Highness the Nawab on the auspicious day of the jubilee of his reign is free primary education throughout the State. It is generally believed that the moral effect of his Highness' enlightened educational policy will be of a far-reaching character at least among the numerous little states in Gujarat and Kathiawar. "Though the wheels of the Government in India," observes the *Bombay Chronicle*, "move slowly in this direction, it is some consolation to see free primary education making headway steadily in the Native States." It is gratifying that the example of Baroda is so profitably followed up by other states. It casts a sad reflection on the meagre educational policy of British India.

EDUCATION IN COCHIN.

The Cochin Government have ordered a reduction of the course in vernacular schools from 5 to 4 years as a necessary and salutary change. The Director of Education had clearly set forth all the grounds in its favour and there is no argument against it. The proposal has been approved and all Infant Classes in the Vernacular Schools of the State will be abolished from the date of the re-opening of these schools after the midsummer holidays in 1915. They have also directed the raising of the minimum pay of teachers in the Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular Schools.

CO-OPERATION IN PUDUKOTTAH.

The first Pudukottah Co-operative Conference met on the 30th April at the Town Hall with Mr. J. T. Gwynn, I.C.S., the State Superintendent, in the chair. Mr. M. K. Venkatachari, the Dewan Peiskhar, welcomed the delegates in a neat speech in the course of which he pointed out :

"Owing to the smallness of our State and its resources, it may not be possible to engage officials as capable and full-timed as those deputed by British Government to steer the co-operative movement. As for non-officials very few of them here have studied the question thoroughly, and have gained practical experience of the movement."

"Fourteen Societies are now at work and are of three distinct patterns. The Town Bank is one on the basis of a limited reserve liability. It has done its fourth year of existence, and has earned from the Durbar their appreciation as to its stability and satisfactory work. The second pattern is one on the agricultural unlimited liability basis. There are 11 societies at work on this pattern, almost all of which are thriving well."

"The third type of societies we have, are more or less State attempts to aid the depressed weaving industry. One of the two societies we have, is at Thiruvappoor about two miles from here, and its members are all Pattunool caste weavers. This union is one on an unlimited liability basis, and it had been in its winding-up stages till very recently. I have every hope that this class of people, with extraordinary skill for superior workmanship and finish, competing successfully with the best Benares and Bangalore make, will soon get free from the stigma attached to them in respect of their honesty in industry and trade."

KASHMIR SILK.

Kashmir, like Mysore, is a silk producing Indian State. But the organization of the industry is much unlike that prevailing in the Mysore State. In Kashmir there are two departments of Sericulture, one at Jammu and another at Srinagar. At Jammu the industry is still in its infancy and is gradually progressing, whereas at Srinagar it has been of some standing and reputation. Both the departments are run on the same lines. Silk, whether pure or waste, together with mulberry trees, forms a monopoly of the State so that no man can manufacture silk, cocoon or silk worm eggs, except the two Government departments of Sericulture, just mentioned.

TWO HYDERABADEES.

When the European war broke out Col. Sir Afzur-ul-Mulk, Commander of His Highness the Nizam's Troops, volunteered to go to the front but had to desist under medical orders. His health has since improved so far as to allow of his giving effect to his wishes. He has now proceeded to the seat of war with the permission of the Nizam and we have no doubt, says the *United India and Native States*, that he will distinguish himself in the field as he did when he was attached to the late Earl Robert's staff. Col. Afzur-ul-Mulk though more than 65 years old is alert and active and there is every reason to believe that he will give a good account of himself. The other gentleman is Mr. Ahmed Hussain, M.A., B.L., the trusted secretary of the late as well as the present Nizam. Mr. Ahmed Hussain is one of Dr. Miller's "my boys" and during the eighties he was a Deputy Collector in the Madras Presidency. Subsequently he studied law, passed the B.L. examination and has served his apprenticeship under Mr. Eardley Norton. He then betook himself to the Nizam's capital where he had the good fortune to win the confidence of the late ruler, Mahboob Ali Khan, by whom he was pushed up rapidly. He has now been raised a step further, having been appointed Assistant Paishi Secretary by His Highness the Nizam, Osman Ali Khan.

MYSORE ENGINEERING CONFERENCE.

The Eighth Annual Conference of Engineers was opened on the 27th ultimo by Mr. Visvesvaraya, the Dewan of Mysore, who said that all the departments of engineering are spending in the current year no less than 120 lakhs. All classes of engineering work is going on in the Mysore State—railways, irrigation works, roads, buildings, town planning, water supply, drainage, electrical engineering, and the installation and management of machinery.

The Dewan, who was himself an engineer of no common reputation, further observed :—"In the coming year railways, large irrigation works and electrical works are expected to occupy much of our attention. New workshops have to be started and existing ones improved. One of the most serious questions of our time is the rapid silting up of our reservoirs, which are not being replaced or improved. More systematic efforts should be made to train local contractors in all kinds of engineering work, for which some of them have shown great aptitude."

INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL SECTION.

FISCAL AUTONOMY FOR INDIA.

In the course of his presidential address at the annual meeting, on April 23, of the Bombay Millowners' Association, the Chairman, Mr. Narotam Morahi Gokuldas, commented on the effects of the war. Alluding to the inevitable embargo which had been placed on some materials of manufacture, he said:—"The time must certainly come when we shall have to point out how far Indian trades and Indian industries have been artificially hampered and handicapped, and how imperative it is for their onward progress to emancipate them from their fetters. The future prosperity of India financially and economically, I venture to say, greatly depends on her being independent to evolve her own commercial and economic destiny. The only remedy for it is fiscal autonomy. It would be an act of the greatest political wisdom and statesmanship when that independence is gained. As to our position as manufacturers, he added, it must be ruefully observed that even now there are no material signs save some spasmodic movements of any improvement in our products. The depression which had commenced some months before the war was of course exceedingly aggravated, but we have borne our conditions of adversity with patience and in the hope that sooner or later the days of prosperity will return. It has been said by the great political philosopher of Elizabeth's time that good things are to be admired. Turning to foreign trade the Chairman regretted that year after year exports of Indian yarn to China were diminishing. To a very large extent he admitted this was the fault of the Indian mills, but he hoped that a new and most profitable market would be nursed at Busra."

THE TISTA VALLEY EXTENSION.

A smart piece of engineering was recently completed on the Tista Valley Extension Railway in swinging into position the hundred-foot girders of the bridge over the Kalijhora ravine, 15 miles from Siliguri. The ravine is over 200 feet wide with exceedingly precipitous banks, while its bed is fully fifty feet below the level of the permanent way. The new bridge has a pier at either end with one in the middle. The completion of this bridge links up the line all the way from Siliguri to the Reang River.

INDIAN BANKS.

Mr. D. E. Wacha, the distinguished publicist and economist, has been trying to get rid of some of the pessimism about Indian banks that has been the result of the failure of so many. He points out: -

"The failure of some of the petty Swadeshi Banks was inevitable. In reality, only 3 or 4 failures belong to the class of Swadeshi Banks with a large capital. Swadeshi Banks may flourish like foreign banks if only there is organization and training in the bank in the right sense of the term. Financing and speculating in finance are not banking. Again, stern integrity and the upholding of credit are a *sine qua non*, but when A. B. and C., with no organization, no training and no experience, set up as bank managers, and enter into transactions which no honest banker would stoop to, what could be expected but failure? Remember that even Swadeshi Banks under European management have failed, of which the most conspicuous or the most notorious was the Bank of Burma."

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

Government servants of every class, except those employed in the Co-operative Department, are now at liberty to become members of non-agricultural co-operative societies, including central banks, but they should not hold office in any such society or serve on any committee appointed for the management of its affairs; but this restriction will not apply to a society composed wholly of Government servants. Government servants employed in the Co-operative Department are prohibited from joining any co-operative society except one registered separately for their benefit; they are permitted to serve on the management of such a society.

ELECTRIC TRACTION IN INDIA.

The question of converting the more congested portion of the Eastern Bengal Railway, near Calcutta, to electric traction is now under discussion, and very important developments are likely to accrue from it if the scheme is once realised. In the first place, the example will not be unheeded by other lines and, secondly, factories and workshops of private concerns will soon take to electric traction.

INLAND TRADE OF INDIA.

From the statistical returns issued by the Department of Statistics, the "Statesman" gives the following interesting figures illustrating the inland trade (both rail and river-borne) of India :—

"The total trade as regards quantity amounted to 349,164,000 cwts. as compared with 351,974,000 cwts. in 1913 and 303,743,000 cwts. on the average of the previous 3 years during the corresponding periods. The inland trade of the British provinces (excluding that of the seaports) was 61·27 per cent. and that of the seaports 32·49 per cent. The rail and river-borne trade of Calcutta was by far the largest, and represented 17·62 per cent. of the total inland trade of British India, or nearly three times that of the Bombay port, the imports alone accounting for 13·41 per cent. of the total inland trade registered. Bengal (excluding Calcutta) follows with a trade of 50,220,000 cwts. or 14·38 per cent. of the total inland trade. The total trade of Bengal (including Calcutta) amounted to 32 per cent. The trade of the Bombay port was 7·2 per cent. and that of Bombay Presidency, excluding the port, 6·1 per cent. The total inland trade of Bombay Presidency (including Bombay port) amounted to 13·3 per cent., or a little above one-third of the trade of Bengal with Calcutta.

"The effects of the war on the internal trade of India are illustrated by supplementary tables for July to December, 1914. The imports from up-country of wheat show a decrease of 1,100,000 cwts. or 10 per cent. as compared with the previous year; cotton shows a decrease of 3,500,000 cwts. or 65 per cent., and jute 7,500,000 cwts. or 45 per cent. as compared with the previous year."

COAL IN BRITISH INDIA.

The following figures of the output of coal in British India during 1914 from the forthcoming Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India are interesting :—

Province	Tons.
Bengal	4,424,540
Bihar and Orissa	10,651,047
Punjab	54,303
Assam	304,668
Baluchistan	48,234
Central Provinces	244,745
North-West Frontier Province	94
Total	15,727,631

ZINC AND SPELTER.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce has received from the Commerce and Industry Department a copy of the following telegram from the Secretary of State for India :—

"Admiralty propose total prohibition of exportation of zinc, ashes, spelter dross and hard spelter from the United Kingdom as stocks are required for manufacture of high grade spelter for cartridge cases. Subject to concurrence of your Government I propose to concur off the understanding that permits will be given for exportation of quantities required by your Government."

CEYLON & BRITISH TRADE EXPANSION.

The *British Export Gazette* says :—"Ceylon was a long while making up its mind as to its duty in regard to merchants of enemy nationality who were resident in the island; but it eventually decided along the right lines, and brought itself in this matter into harmony with the rest of the Empire. This decision has made possible its awakening to other opportunities which are presented for assisting the Mother Country, particularly in regard to the supply of such raw materials as are required for industries hitherto monopolised very largely by Germany. For instance, Ceylon is asking itself whether it cannot supply potash salts necessary in the manufacture of glass and soap and also in the preparation of certain chemicals and manures."

INDIA'S WATER-POWER SCHEME.

India, says "Indian Industries and Power," is famous for its great water-power schemes, and extensive developments are taking place yearly. The Cauvery Falls Scheme has a 92-mile, 35,000-volt line, a 58-mile, 32,500-volt line, and a 40-mile, 21,000-volt line. The Jhelum River Scheme has a 65-mile, 30,000-volt line, and another using 60,000 volts. The highest pressure is 100,000 volts used on a 43-mile transmission of the Tata Power Co. There is also a 15,000-volt line at Simla. These great undertakings convey some idea of the extensiveness of electrical engineering enterprise in India.

OIL MILLING INDUSTRY.

An official of the Department of Industries, Madras, has been visiting Feroke, Cochin, Calicut and other places in the district in connection with enquiries into the possibilities of a coconut oil-milling industry on up-to-date lines for the western coast.

SILK INDUSTRY IN INDIA.

Much good work has been done by the Salvation Army in the direction of industrial enterprise. Among the various directions in which the Army has been trying its hand of late, that of the cultivation of the silk industry is not the least conspicuous, says the *Jann-e-Jamshed*. It has to be remembered that Commissioner Booth-Tucker and his colleagues have once again spoken to the Government and the people of the country on the subject not as a mere abstract proposition, not as the result of a few superficial enquiries as to the probable potentialities of the industry. The Army has already done much for the cultivation of the silk in India. It has covered a wide area in this country and Ceylon by its silk operations. It has created quite an army of skilled, capable and experienced men to work the industry and guide it in its various branches. It has invented an improved design of loom, of which more than a thousand have been sold and are used in the land. It has its workshops for weaving and silk-reeling. Sure enough all this justifies Commissioner Booth-Tucker and his co-adjutors to speak with authority on the subject; and speaking as they so do, we should be surprised if the Government and the public failed to co-operate with them in the right spirit for the success of their noble and self-imposed mission for the benefit of an alien country and its depressed millions.

GOVERNMENT & COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

We are glad to learn that with the assistance and encouragement of the local Government, twelve societies of weavers, two of carpenters and two of shoemakers have already been registered in the Punjab. There are also a few isolated societies composed of the members of other trades. An inspector has also been appointed to help in the promotion and organisation of societies among hand-loom weavers, and the Government is ready to assist the members of any industrial group desiring to form a co-operative society. The Government, however, doubts the practicability of utilising the Co-operative Credit Movement for starting new cottage industries. The utilisation of the movement for such a purpose, says the *Bulletin*, may not be wholly impracticable. Nevertheless it should be remembered that it would be more convenient to Government and the people if there were a division of labour. The journal urges the public to co-operate with the local Government in helping them to realise the end in view.

THE FRONTIER TRADE OF INDIA.

Mr. Findlay Shirras, the Director of Statistics, says in his recent report that the total value of merchandise and treasure imported into British India across the frontier by land during the eight months, April to November 1914, was Rs. 644 lakhs as against Rs. 663 lakhs in the corresponding period of the preceding year, representing a decrease of Rs. 19 lakhs or 3 per cent. As regards exports, the total value decreased from Rs. 582 lakhs to Rs. 579 lakhs (or 5 per cent.) during the same period. The imports represent 53 per cent. and the exports 47 per cent. of the total trade. The shares taken in this trade were 37 per cent. by Burma, 20 per cent. by the North-West Frontier Provinces, 15 per cent. by Orissa, 8 per cent. by Sind and British Baluchistan, and 6 per cent. by the United Provinces.

MINOR INDUSTRIES OF THE U. P.

The following *communiqué* has been issued by the Director of Industries for the United Provinces:—

One of the prime essentials to success in business is the provision of means for bringing the seller into touch with buyers over as wide an area as possible, and the slow growth, in some cases the actual decadence, of many of the minor industries of these provinces may be traced to the lack of these means. As a first attempt to evolve some degree of commercial organization for these minor industries, the local Government have recently decided, on the recommendations of the Board of Industries, to appoint honorary trade correspondents for various districts and industries, whose function will be to correspond with the Director of Industries on all matters pertaining to the improvement of local industries. Though their agency information likely to be of value can be placed before the people actually engaged in industry, some measure of combination can in some places be effected, and it is hoped that eventually they will be the means of introducing the manufactures of the district to a much wider market than has hitherto been possible. Many of the artwares of the Province would meet with ready sale if they were placed before the public of Europe or America, but the individual maker does not possess sufficient capital to warrant his embarking upon an export trade, whereas with a central organization capable of bringing his wares to the notice of such a public this should be practicable.

INDIA'S ELECTRICAL IMPORTS.

The total imports for electrical machinery, apparatus, etc. for 1913-14, says *Indian Industries and Power*, was £1,062,000, as against £792,000 for the previous year. A very large percentage of this came from the United Kingdom. For example, of cables, 91 per cent, was British against 4 per cent. from Germany and Austria. The lowest percentage in any class was in the case of lamps, of which 68 per cent. were British and 25 per cent. German and Austrian. Telegraph apparatus for the last year amounted to £6,900 (97 per cent. British) and telephone apparatus £23,400 (92 per cent. British). It was seen that the bulk of the electrical trade with India was from the United Kingdom except in the case of lamps and fans, of which 28 per cent. came from America.

BRITISH INDUSTRIES AFTER THE WAR.

Mr. O. C. Beale, past president of the Australian Manufacturers' Association, in the course of an interesting lecture before the Royal Society of Arts on the expansion of British industries after the war again urged the formation of manufacturers' associations in Great Britain. He said: "There should be formed in Great Britain manufacturers' associations solely to represent producing interests, apart from those of distributors of foreign-made goods. As things stand in Great Britain, industrial interests are affected, and possibly on occasion overborne by the purely commercial. Importers and manufacturers are inextricably mixed in the Chambers of Commerce, although there are, curiously enough and in contradiction to their own general principle, Chambers of Commerce in purely manufacturing towns and districts. Even with these the representations cannot be so clear and authoritative as if they were directly and solely chambers of manufacture representing the national interests of producers. With interests in complete antagonism, both sets of people are included in Chambers of Commerce. Yet in replacing the goods brought from abroad we might well provide incomes for British workers to the number of hundreds of thousands. In Australia, pastoralists, farmers, mine-owners, ship-owners, manufacturers, merchants, and retail traders have each separately their own consultative and representative body well organised. The resultant benefit to the entire community does not require explanation."

JAPAN'S OPPORTUNITY IN INDIA.

Japan has wisely taken advantage of the present situation created by the war, in that she has already captured a considerable portion of the imports hitherto associated primarily with the enemy countries. In glass and glassware Japan sent to India during 1914-15 Rs. 19.65 lakhs worth of goods as against Rs. 15.81 in the previous year. During the month of March alone Rs. 3.82 lakhs worth which is more than half the total has been sent. It also appears that the imports of glassware from the United Kingdom to India decreased last year by Rs. 5.14 lakhs. Another article of import in which Japan has succeeded equally well is matches. The import of Japanese matches to India during 1914-15 was worth Rs. 69.07 lakhs as against Rs. 39.06 lakhs in the previous year. The imports during March were worth Rs. 11.68 lakhs as against Rs. 3.12 lakhs for March last year. This indicates Japan's opportunity in India. It is, however, to be regretted rightly, says a contemporary, that in India itself practically nothing has taken place by way of supplying either glassware or matches, or other goods locally, and India continues to be helpless.

PAPER CLOTHES.

Both Japanese and Russian soldiers are wearing paper clothes. "Kamiko," as paper clothing is called in Japan, is made of real Japanese paper manufactured from mulberry bark. The paper has little size in it, and, though soft and warm, a thin layer of silk wadding is placed between two sheets of the paper, and the whole is quilted. Japanese soldiers realised the value of this kind of clothing when they had to weather a Siberian winter, but its only drawback is that it is not washable. A company in Yokohama is supplying large quantities of paper shirts to the Russian Army. They state, says the American Consul-General at Yokohama, that paper clothes are extensively manufactured in Japan. We are told that the garment sold by the firm is made of tough, soft fabric, strong enough to hold buttons sewn on in the ordinary way and appears to be very serviceable.

INDIAN EXPORTS.

It is announced for general information that the prohibition of the export from British India of medical and surgical stores of every description has been modified so as to exclude magnesium sulphate, ajowan seed, chiretta roots and euphorbia pilulifera.

AGRICULTURAL SECTION.

RADIUM AND AGRICULTURE.

Captain E. S. Phillips, presided on April 14 at a meeting of the Royal Society of Arts, in John Street, Adelphi, when Mr. T. Thorne Baker, A.M.I.E.E., read a paper on "The Industrial Uses of Radium." The lecturer said his objects were, first, to induce if possible more enterprise among works research chemists to test the availability of radium for their own industries, and second, to point out that in a time of national emergency we had large stores of material at present lying idle, which could be turned to enormous advantage for agricultural work. It was not too much to say that in the hitherto worthless residues of the radium factories we had one of the most valuable agricultural assets of the country, which, if utilised with discrimination, would give a great impetus to intensive farming. The ideal process of production for agricultural work was that known as the concentration process. The residues after full extraction on a commercial scale, of the radium were subjected to a method of concentration by which about 90 per cent. of the inert material was discarded. Soluble radium salts in very small quantities completely killed soil organisms, while the use of too liberal a quantity of insoluble radio-active matter was almost fatal to plant life. The present price of pure radium bromide varied from £18 to £25 per milligramme, but when buying residues or low-grade ones the price was for smaller, and an average price of £5 per milligramme might be taken as a reasonable basis. Thus £5 would represent the cost of the radium in about 40 tons of soil, and that quantity spread over or worked into the ground to the depth of from three to five inches would obviously cover a very large area. The lecturer said he knew of one lump in this country where 2,000 milligrammes in residues were lying idle; that would make 80,000 tons of soil permanently suitable for intensive cultivation, and they could imagine what even that would mean to a small country like England at a time when market gardeners were straining every nerve to increase their yields.

TOBACCO CULTURE IN INDIA.

A Bulletin issued by the Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa informs that there has of late been some advance in the tobacco industry in India. It appears that a successful Indian variety has been evolved after numerous experiments both in cultivation and curing. This tobacco leaf has the necessary aroma flavour and elasticity which is the great requisite of good tobacco. It would be remembered that a few years ago Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson imposed a tax on foreign cigarettes and tobacco, and it appears that this tax has been of great help to the development of this industry. Formerly the cultivators were labouring under a serious handicap in the shape of the competition of cheap American cigarettes and tobacco. Indian cigars are chiefly made in Southern India, and it should be mentioned that it is there that the growers have attained the success noted above.

INCREASING MILK SUPPLY.

The Bombay Government recently issued a Resolution promising grants and other assistance to municipalities if they submitted proposals for increasing the milk supply of the whole Presidency. The other day a milch-cattle show was held at Belgaum to which 137 fine cows were brought. Prizes to the value of over Rs. 1,000 were given, and the cowmen were told how they could increase the milk supply by introducing good breed of cattle and feeding them well. The Commissioner gave the example of the district of Kera, where with the help of an association the Gowalas took care to feed their cattle well and took their milk to dairies where butter was made and sent to Bombay for sale. The whole thing was very profitable and the milk supply increased four or five times the previous supply. He invited the attention of other districts to do likewise, and this could be done everywhere provided there was a good supply of water and fodder. He urged the municipalities to submit proposals for the establishment of dairies and told them how public health was largely dependent on an abundant milk supply and its purity.

ENGINEERING AND AGRICULTURE.

In a comparatively speaking backward agricultural country, such as India, the skill of engineers, says a contemporary, has obviously a wide field of actual and potential activity. Water is one of the first essentials of cultivation; in a country, therefore, where rainfall is capricious, artificial methods of ensuring an adequate supply must be adopted. The engineer's chief device for providing water is, of course, the construction and maintenance of irrigation canals. Well and river irrigation, however, is a valuable and in some cases, the only practicable alternative to canal irrigation, and improvement in this direction is one of the most important branches of agricultural engineering proper. But the provision of such irrigational facilities immediately leads to a second engineering problem, namely, that of devising the most economical method of distributing the water on to the land, and entails a study of pumping plants and sites, with special reference to the possibilities of various types of power-plants. Then, again, the application of power to other agricultural operations, such as ploughing immediately suggests itself, while certain phases of land improvement, such as field terracing and salt land reclamation can also present problems which demand the expert advice and aid of an engineer. The improvement of agricultural improvements, concludes the journal, is a sister subject in which the co-operation of engineering and agricultural experts is highly desirable.

THE FRUIT CANNING INDUSTRY.

Amongst the many industrial openings in India, says an esteemed contemporary, that of canned fruit is not the least worthy of consideration by enterprising persons. Fruit is a perishable article and, in its natural state, it can only find a market within a radius of a few hundred miles from where it is grown. By means of cold storage, it can be maintained in a state of freshness for many days, but this is a process which can only be adopted by railway and shipping companies, and not within the means of men of small capital. The fruit canning industry, on the other hand, does not require much capital, and offers fair prospects of profit to enterprising men. We understand that the Oriental Cannery Company of Honavar in the Canara District have succeeded in finding a profitable market for their Mango pulp.

INDUSTRIES AND AGRICULTURE.

As a corrective against over-industrialism Mr. J. K. Mehta points out in the "Commonweal":—"Our people are obsessed by the thought, possibly under the influence of Western economists of modern times, that industrialism is the be-all and end-all of everything and that a nation which wants to be in the forefront must be above all an industrial nation. Hence whenever the question of markets for India is touched upon, we are liable to complain that we have no industries whereby we can send out our manufactured goods to foreign countries. The following paragraphs from the article contributed by a leading American writer on "Commerce and Finance" to an American paper are full of meaning and suggestion to us:—

"It is susceptible of proof that agriculture yields larger returns on the capital employed and the energy expended than any other great division of human activity. It is self-evident that the individuality of the farmer is less hampered than that of the clerk who is one of a large office force, or the workman who is but one cog in the human machinery of some great industrial plant.

"It therefore seems wiser to consider whether, for the present at least, Americans will not find a larger profit and greater happiness in producing a maximum of the raw materials which civilisation requires at the lowest possible cost, and permitting the people of Europe to manufacture in their own countries such of raw materials as they may require for their own consumption and trade."

CROPS IN THE UNITED PROVINCES.

A recent United Provinces Agricultural Report shows that owing to inopportune rains during March, wheat will not be such a good crop as at one time seemed probable. Moist and cloudy weather brought on an attack of rust, which has appreciably lowered the outturn. The unirrigated crops have naturally benefited by the rains, and the barely which is less affected will be a good crop. The gram crop promises to be one of the best the provinces have enjoyed for some years past. The arhar and peas are also above the average. The mango trees have generally suffered from the storms of the past month, and the "Mahua" yield is estimated at 12 annas. Rust is general in wheat throughout the provinces, and the condition of agricultural stock is generally satisfactory.

Literary.

CARLYLE'S GERMANS.

Mr. J. M. Sloan, writing in the current number of *Hibbert Journal*, explains the essentially German spirit in Carlyle's teachings and writings. He says that to Carlyle, the 'mailed fist,' which could strike down incompetence, corrupt ambition, bungling inefficiency, and mendacity in high places, was an ordinance of the Almighty. There was a certain qualified affinity between Carlyle and the royal stock of the Hohenzollerns. Carlyle, like his famous hero Frederick, often discovered in the strong man's success the justification of his policy, his aims and his actualities of achievement. Napoleon was wrong because he failed. Frederick the Great's conquest of Silesia worked out satisfactorily and therefore it must have been just. In the light of his reiterated hypothesis in national ethics, working itself out into right, and might failing, perishing unless it was based on right, Carlyle contemplated the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71. His conclusion was expressed in the following: "No nation ever had so bad a neighbour as Germany has had in France for the last four hundred years; bad in all manner of ways; insolent, rapacious, insatiable, unappeasable and continually aggressive."

Now the France which Carlyle believed he knew and judged rightly in 1870 has passed into the image of Germany revealed in and through the war of 1914. He wrote: "France was the Mount Sinai of the Universe; the French people believed they were the Christ of nations, an innocent god-like people suffering for the sins of all nations with an eye to redeem us all." Germany has now emerged in the guise of the archsophist, is given up to strong delusion till at last the lie seems to them the very truth. "It is the Germans now that in their crisis and extreme need appear to have no resource, but self-deception still and quasi-heroic gasconade. Let the ghost of Carlyle judge now as to whether France or Germany has wandered far astray . . . in the way of deception and self-deception and is given up to strong delusion."

If the Germans are to be judged by the lofty standard of the earlier Germanic idealism through all its phases from Luther to Goethe, the Germans and the Germans of this war have displayed an appalling intellectual and moral deterioration. Neither Carlyle nor Froude saw or foresaw

the coming decline of the old Germanic idealism, which was essentially humanitarian. Carlyle did not foresee everything. Heine saw into the Prussian heredity with a deeper eye than Carlyle displayed. He wrote in 1832 about Prussia thus:

I have great misgivings about this philosophic Christian military despotism, this medley of beer deceit and sand. Repulsive, deeply repulsive to me was ever this Prussia, this pedantic, hypocritical, sanctimonious Prussia—this Tartuffe among the nations.

Prussian philosophy from Kant of Königsberg onwards had indirectly availed to empty the old Lutheran Christianity of the kernel of sincerity, and left it no better than a hollow husk of hypocrisy. The Prussia of Heine's eloquent and deep-seeing scorn is substantially the Germany of 1914. His prophecy of the certain recrudescence of Prussian barbarism, of the old Germanic lust of battle for its own sake, veneered by Christianity and 'Kultur,' has been all too literally fulfilled.

LITERATURE AS A FORCE IN LIFE.

Those who read what the Germans have been saying about themselves since the war began, says a writer in the *School World*, must have been struck with the frequency with which they express the conviction that their soldiers cannot have done anything very wicked because they have been nursed on a great literature. The argument is obviously an extreme case of *non sequitur*, and sometimes it may be merely cant; but, on the whole, it points to a profound difference in the way in which we and our enemies regard literature. We do not look upon books as a force in national life as they and the French also do. The higher literature is usually even to the Englishman who reads and enjoys it something outside himself. He does not conceive of it as influencing his life in any marked degree. Our history, continues the writer, suggests the weakness of the printed word amongst our people. Books have no doubt played a part in English history. We do not forget Milton, and Locke, and Burke, but no book has ever stirred the English mind so profoundly as the "Contract Social" stirred France or "Reden an die deutsche Nation" and "Die Politik" stirred Germany. We suppose the cause is the prosaic quality of our intelligence. Ideas floating in the air do not influence us; we cannot grasp their meaning till they have assumed concrete shape. We might put it in more scientific language by saying that the English mind does not react to the stimulus of words.

Educational.

ORIENTAL LEARNING IN BOMBAY.

With a view to encourage Oriental learning the Government of Bombay have sanctioned a grant of Rs. 100 per annum each to eight Pundits and four Maulvies employed in teaching Sanskrit and Persian on traditional lines who are not in Government service. These grants are tenable for a period of three years. In 1913 the Government decided to allot personal allowances to Pundits and Maulvies in Government service. Subsequently a suggestion to give similar allowance to those who are not in Government service was accepted, and as Western India was the centre of Sanskrit rather than Mahomedan learning it was recommended that a larger portion of the sum allotted for this purpose in the last year's budget should be reserved for grants to Pundits.

THE STUDY OF LAW IN ENGLAND.

A Press Note published by the Government of Bombay states :—

Under the revised consolidated regulations of the several societies of Lincoln's Inn, the Middle Temple, Inner Temple and Gray's Inn, Indians applying for admission to any of these Inns of Court in order to study for a call to the Bar are required to produce certificates of character and position from the Secretary for Indian Students appointed by the Secretary of State for India. In order that the certificates in question may be secured from that officer it is hereby notified for public information that persons proceeding from this country to Great Britain for the purpose of being called to the Bar are required to provide themselves with a recommendation from the local Advisory Committee for Indian Students of the Province in which they reside. The Secretary of the Committee will be able to inform them of the papers, etc., which it is desirable that they should take with them.

When the candidate is a Government servant and proposes to enter an Inn of Court with the knowledge and approval of the Local Government under which he is serving, the recommendation of that Government will be forwarded to the India Office.

All State scholars, whatever subject they study, should similarly communicate with the Local Advisory Committee before they proceed to Europe in order that they may obtain advice regarding the taking of certificates, etc.

THE COMING UNIVERSITY.

In the March number of *Mastery*, a monthly magazine published by the New Education University Centre of London there is a telling article on the ideal of the coming University. It begins by declaring that wholesome human employment is the first and best method in all education mental as well as bodily; and that the methods pursued in our colleges and schools date back to the time when education was designed alone for those who were to become priests. Ruskin condemned the system which regarded the student as one set apart for the order of Melchizedek, and William Morris echoing his master's sentiments has declared that industrial education is both moral and spiritual, and that safety lies in a just balance between head and hand.

The great mistake made by our colleges is that they have separated the world of culture from the world of work; and that an educated man is one who does no work. The coming University will make it possible for every individual to receive an education, and not merely the favoured few; but education then would mean that manual labour would be combined with intellectual rigour and that both would produce better mental, physical and spiritual development.

The coming University will be a farm where the student will learn how to raise the foodstuffs necessary to a natural diet—a sanatorium where students would be taught dietetics and the laws of health—a home in which the student's social nature and all the social faculties of his make-up will be thoroughly trained, guarded and educated—a school of psychological research and spiritual development where the spiritual faculties of the student will be developed so that he becomes a well-balanced man—and a factory and laboratory where the student will be given useful and instructive employment for every four or five hours a day and where his work will pay for his tuition, board and clothing. The coming University will not accept endowments from the conscience funds of rich men who could not have rendered equivalents for the fortunes which they have acquired. It will be entirely independent of every outside influence and will be dependent only upon the loyalty and the honest work of its student body.

THE NEW EDUCATION MEMBER.

We understand that the Hon. Justice Sir C. Sankaran Nair of the Madras High Court has been appointed to succeed the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler in His Excellency the Viceroy's Executive Council.

Legal.

CRIMINAL ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA.

Sir Henry Cotton writing to *India* on "Criminal Administration in India" points out that he is as much in favour of the keeping up of the efficiency of the present administration as any but that one of the characteristics that it lacks much is a more humane method of criminal administration. He pleads, in the first place, against the Whipping Act which would do justice to the barbarous tribes of Central Africa. He then refers to the severity of sentences oftentimes passed by the Courts of Law, and says:

"This is one direction only in which I appeal for more humane methods of administration. There are many others. Who is there outside the Service who does not know that judicial punishments in India, of whatever sort or kind, are almost invariably heavier than the circumstances call for, and beyond comparison more severe than they are for corresponding offences in the United Kingdom? How often is not a miserable criminal sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment for an offence which in this country would be punishable with six weeks or three months by a London Magistrate? How often does a Sessions Judge in India not sentence for seven years where a Judge in England would hold eighteen months or two years to be an ample punishment? This is due for the most part to ignorance and inexperience on the part of men who have not been brought up in the forensic atmosphere of the British Courts, and who are entrusted with judicial powers at an early age when it is their natural ambition to acquire the reputation of a strong magistrate."

POLICE REFORM IN BENGAL.

The Calcutta correspondent of the *C. & M. Gazette* writes to that journal:—

Mr. Gourlay is now engaged in studying the history of the police, first in England and then in Bengal and India, and particularly in Bengal. It is stated that the aim of the Governor is to increase the efficiency of the police for the benefit of the people but his Excellency does not think this is possible unless the law-abiding sections of the people look upon the police as their natural protectors. His Excellency has gathered that there is considerable antagonism between the police and the law-abiding section of the community, and he wants to find out the remedy.

INDIAN SOLDIERS AND LITIGATION.

An ordinance providing for special protection, in respect of civil and revenue litigation of Indian soldiers serving under war conditions, has been published in a "Gazette of India" Extraordinary. The term "Indian soldier" implies any person subject to the Indian Army Act and the expression "serving under war conditions" applies to service both in and out of India when declared by the Governor-General-in-Council to be service under war conditions. If a soldier who is a party to a proceeding is absent on active service and is not represented in Court, notice is to be given to the prescribed authority, who may give notice to the Court to postpone the proceedings, but in the absence of such notice the Court may continue them. A Collector is empowered to secure the postponement of proceedings against a soldier who ordinarily resides or has property in his district. Within three months of ceasing to serve under war conditions a soldier may apply to have set aside any decree or order which may have been passed against him during his service provided notice has been served on the opposite party.

THE LAHORE CONSPIRACY CASE.

In opening the Lahore Conspiracy Case before the Special Tribunal, Mr. Bevan Petman, the Government Advocate, stated that the accused had entered into a conspiracy with the object of waging war against His Majesty the King-Emperor and overawing by force the Government established by law in British India. The means that were to be adopted for the purpose were:—

(1) Seduction of Indian soldiers from their allegiance to the King and to cause them to mutiny and join in rebellion and to furnish arms and munitions.

(2) Obtaining of money for the same purpose by looting Government treasuries and by dacoities which necessarily involved murders.

(3) Collection of arms, men and munitions and also money for the purchase of arms and munitions.

(4) Murder of police and other officials who interfered with the carrying out of the conspiracy and of all Civil Europeans as soon as the rebellion started.

(5) Wrecking of trains and railway bridges.

(6) Sudden attack on and killing of all His Majesty's European troops.

(7) Production and circulation of seditious literature, delivery of seditious speeches, and exhortations to rebels.

Medical.

ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS IN BOMBAY.

Three years ago on the formation of the King George V. Anti-Tuberculosis League, the Bombay Government undertook to augment the funds to the extent of Rs. 10,000 a year. It is announced that the Government has promised to make further grant of the same sum for another period of three years. The League's activity has increased a great deal of late, and there are some ambitious schemes on foot for stamping out tuberculosis in the city.

A MEDICAL DISCOVERY.

Through the mistake of a laboratory servant in filling a bottle with anisol instead of anise oil, Professor Frankel, of Vienna, has discovered a preparation which kills the louse transmitting the infection of spotted typhus, says the Venice correspondent of the *Times*. The Professor says that the mixture absolutely destroys within ten minutes whereas other preparations only disperse the insects. Anisol is the principal substance of anise oil.

A HERO OF PEACE.

The *Manchester Guardian* lately drew attention to the great and heroic work of Sir George Turner who recently died from leprosy. In 1895 at the age of 50, Sir George entered the Civil Service of Cape Colony as Medical Officer of Health, and with the support of Rhodes was engaged in research to find a preventive for rinderpest. In his spare time he worked ceaselessly in the Leper Asylum at Pretoria "trying to alleviate the lot of the lepers and winning their deep devotion"—and on his retirement from Africa he worked in England for the same cause. The tragic close of his life is only relieved by its heroism.

THE BENGAL HOSPITALSHIP.

In another page will be found an account of the *namakaran* ceremony of the Bengal Floating Hospital performed by His Excellency Lord Carmichael. Since writing that account we have learnt to our deep regret that the vessel foundered in the Bay about the 17th instant. It is presumed that this mishap will in no way depress the enthusiasm of the promoters and that steps will be taken to give practical expression to the Bengal sentiment of loyalty to the great cause of the Empire.

HEALTH OF THE SOLDIERS.

The rate of admission in hospitals of British soldiers in India suffering from venereal diseases in the year 1913, says the *Englishman*, was 52.5 per thousand, as against 55.5 in the preceding year. The corresponding figures for the Indian troops were 12.6 and 14.6 respectively for the two years. In the case of the former there were 3,717 admissions during 1913, as compared to 1,656 in the case of latter. The highest rate of admissions among garrisons with a strength of not less than 200 for all forms of venereal diseases was from the British troops stationed at Fort William, the ratio per 1,000 being 195.5 or nearly 4 times the average rate of the whole of British troops in India. The rate for 1913 was a minimum record, and the director of medical services in India in his annual report for 1913 says that 'of the causes that have conduced to the reduction of venereal diseases among British troops in India during the last decade may be mentioned increase in temperance and in facilities for recreation, greater keenness for outdoor games, education in connection with venereal diseases, improved methods of treating these diseases and the fostering of *esprit de corps* and of a sound public opinion on the subject, and a consequent higher moral tone in units.' The treatment of syphilis continues to be carried out by the use of salvarsan administered intravenously in combination with intramuscular injections of mercurial cream.

PROMOTIONS IN THE I.M.S.

The Government of India have decided that, consequent on the suspension during the war of examinations for promotion, the promotion of lieutenants of the Indian Medical Service shall be regulated as follows: (1) Lieutenants with less than three years' service will be promoted to the rank of captain on completion of that term of service, irrespective of whether they have passed the prescribed examinations or not provided they are qualified in all other respects. (2) Lieutenants who have already completed three years' service and who have not passed or have failed to pass will be promoted as from October 22nd, 1914, the earliest date on which they could have presented themselves for examination in the ordinary course provided they are certified to be fit for promotion in all other respects. (3) Lieutenants who have not been able for approved reasons to present themselves for examination will be dealt with under ordinary rules.

Science.

WAR AND SCIENCE.

Dr. P. C. Ray, the eminent scientist of Calcutta, was interviewed by a press representative regarding the destruction of life on the battlefield by means of asphyxiating gases. Dr. Ray is inclined to believe that it is chlorine that is being chiefly used by the Germans. Chlorine is much heavier than air and can be made to spread over a large area when discharged through a projectile. We are told that means of protection against asphyxiating gases were employed by the Allies with excellent results. Dr. Ray proposes two methods: The one is by which a current of fresh air may be forced through the trenches as it is through mines. The other is by the use of smoke helmets furnished with a tube containing freshly burnt charcoal which would absorb deadly gases and admit pure air, and fitted over the head and face. Oxygen, the learned Doctor adds, could be generated inside the helmet with sodium peroxide and water for the purpose of enriching the air.

WIRELESS WONDERS.

An article in a weekly newspaper calls attention to the operations in the Dardanelles as illustrative of the value of wireless telegraphy. Were it not for the wireless installations in the aircraft of the Allies, this writer points out, the forcing of the Straits might well be doomed to failure. Perhaps this is a trifle exaggerated, comments the "Times of India," since we know the Dardanelles were forced by a fleet under Sir John Duckworth long before wireless telegraphy was thought of, and the same principles upon which Sir John went to work in 1807 hold good still although the means for giving them effect are altogether different. What is true, however, is that the method of indirect fire could not be adopted without wireless and air-craft, and it is a matter for satisfaction that the problem of fitting aeroplanes with installations of a reliable character was solved in time. Four or five years ago, it would not have been possible for our naval gunners, bombarding the forts in the Narrows from a spot at which they could not see their target, to be kept as well informed of the effect of their shells as though they were in direct telephonic communication with a station on the peninsula. As regards the other naval operations of the war, wireless has not proved of assistance only to one side.

INDIAN SCIENTIFIC ASSOCIATION.

The second quarterly meeting of the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science was recently held in the rooms of the Association at 210, Bow Bazaar Street, Calcutta, with Dr. P. C. Ray in the Chair.

Mr. Francis V. Fernandez read a paper on "The action of monochloroacetic acid and thiosemicarbazide." The action produces a new compound of remarkable properties. Only a few such compounds are known.

Mr. J. N. Rakshit read a paper on "Metallic derivatives of acid amides, constitution of sodium and potassium derivatives of acid amides." This paper dealt with an important investigation in the field of chemistry, and the investigator was encouraged by the research fund committee of the chemical society of London with a grant for the continuation of the research on metallic derivatives of acid amides.

Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee spoke on the subject of "Amoeba in Calcutta filtered water: a method of determination of protozoa contents in potable water." He said that hitherto analysis of water generally directed their attention to the determination of its amoeba contents, and no particularly useful method was yet discovered for the determination of the protozoa contents. These organisms were no insignificant causes of the pollution of water. Dr. Chatterjee has discovered a method which consists of taking 250 c. c. of tap water in which one protozoa is multiplied to millions in 24 hours by introducing into the water a perfectly sterilized culture medium, so that the properties of these organisms may be conveniently studied.

TREES THAT WEEP.

Dr. David Hooper, late economic botanist to the Botanical Survey of India, speaking recently at a meeting of the Pharmaceutical Society on "Trees that weep," said there were in the British Pharmacopoeia twenty articles described as tears, or the natural exudations of plants. The tears were produced by root pressure, and there were several varieties of the exudations. There were astringent tears, resinous tears, rubber tears, varnish tears, balsam tears, acid tears, petrified tears, etc. He thought if the secretions of some of those peculiar trees were studied, it might be possible to induce the trees to yield more valuable exudations. This had already been done in regard to turpentine and rubber, but there were several other secretions which might become economically valuable if placed on the market.

Personal.

KING ALBERT'S SON.

"The young Prince Leopold, elder son of King Albert and Queen Elizabeth, who is 13½ years old, has for the last three months been in constant touch with the Belgian Army," says the *Daily Telegraph*. "He begged his father to allow him to enter the service and at last King Albert consented to the Prince joining a distinguished Regiment of the Line glorious for its defence of Dixmude, where its flag was decorated with the Order of Leopold."

"King Albert when his son was received into the regiment expressed the joy he felt to see the Prince enter the heroic regiment, whose glory won at the Battle of the Yser would never be excelled. While the King spoke, there could be heard the sound of the guns."

"The young Prince wears the uniform of the regiment, and as he is unusually tall he does not in the least suggest a 13-year-old soldier."

"Before the regiment the Colonel gave the young Prince the accolade, and then the regiment with its newest recruit wearing a proud and martial air marched past the King and Queen."

THE LATE SWAMI TRIGUNATITA.

It is with profound sorrow that we have to announce the passing away of the Swami Trigunatita, one of the most favourite Sannyasin disciples of Sri Ramakrishna at the University Hospital, San Francisco, U.S.A., on the 10th of January last. On the 27th December 1914, while the Swami was conducting the afternoon service at the Hindu Temple, a man entered the Hall and coming up to the dais exploded a bomb that he had brought under the cover of his hat at the feet of the Swami. The man himself was instantly blown to pieces, and the Swami and some others of the audience were severely wounded. The wound of the Swami proved fatal two weeks later. The man who threw the bomb was named Louis Vavra, and no reason could be attached to his nefarious act except lunacy. According to the account of him in the San Francisco papers, he was a student of the occultism and had been driven mad by his failure to master the secrets of the esoteric writings of the adepts. The late Swami was one of the ablest lieutenants that the Swami Vivekanandaji left behind him to carry on his august work. He had literary capacity of a

superior order, and while in India he was highly revered by many for his austere religious life and deep Oriental culture. He was also prominent among the philanthropic workers, and in the course of the work he had to come across Government officials who admired him a good deal. He started the Bengali monthly magazine, "Udbodhan," devoted to Hindu culture and religion and published for the first time the Bengali books of the Swami Vivekananda dealing with the Hindu philosophy. In America he worked hard for the propagation of Vedanta philosophy and was the first to establish a Hindu Temple there. In the death of the revered Swami, the Ramakrishna Mission has lost one of its most able workers and spiritual teachers whom Sri Ramakrishna left as a sacred legacy to the world.—*Vedanta Kesari*.

THE HON. MR. CLAUDE HILL.

The following account from *India* of Mr. Claude Hill of the Bombay Civil Service, who succeeds Sir Robert Carlyle as the Revenue and Agriculture members, will be read with interest:—

"He has always been more or less a favourite of fortune. In 1892, the year of his marriage to a daughter of the late Sir Raymond West, he became Under Secretary to the Government of Bombay, and in 1895 he was sent up to Simla as Under Secretary in the Home Department of the Government of India. He remained there for two years and then went to Hyderabad as First Assistant to the Resident. From 1899 to 1903 he was Private Secretary to Lord Northcote, Governor of Bombay, and returned thence to Simla as Deputy Secretary in the Foreign Office. In 1904, however, he reverted to Bombay as Political Secretary to the Local Government and has since been Resident in Mewar and Agent to the Governor of Bombay in Kathiawar."

TEETOTAL MONARCHS.

"There are probably at least four European monarchs who will warmly approve of His Majesty's decision, says a contemporary, touching the recent announcement that King George has given the lead in temperance reform being themselves habitual abstainers from alcoholic liquor. There are the Kings of Italy, Spain, Sweden and Bulgaria. Kings Victor and Ferdinand are almost excessively abstemious. King Alfonso will not touch wine of liquor even at official banquets. King Gustav is more than a teetotaler himself. He and his entire Royal Family are at the head of the temperance movement in Sweden."

Political.

EUROPE FROM 1815 TO 1914.

The following table which has been compiled by the writer of the article on "Nationalism and Liberty" in the *Round Table* to show the continuous expression of nationalism and the struggles of the nations since 1815. The writer emphasises the character of the principles which operated to produce the political events following the Franco-Prussian War :—

- 1815. Congress of Vienna. End of Napoleonic Wars.
- 1821-1832. War of Greek independence.
- 1830. Revolution in France.
Revolution in Belgium against Holland.
Constitutional revolutions in Brunswick, Hesse, Hanover and Saxony.
Revolution in the Papal States.
Revolution in Poland.
- 1832. Belgian neutrality guaranteed by the Powers.
- 1832-1836. Civil Wars in Spain and Portugal.
- 1846-1848. Rebellions or constitutional revolutions in France, Prussia, Hanover, Northern Italy, Naples, Galicia, Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and Switzerland.
- 1849. Independence of Hungary proclaimed.
- 1849-1850. War in Schleswig-Holstein.
- 1852. Napoleon III. declared Emperor of the French.
- 1854-1856. The Crimean War.
- 1859-1860. War of Italian Independence.
- 1861-1865. American Civil War.
- 1862. Creation of Rumania.
- 1862-1863. Rebellion in Poland.
- 1864. War in Schleswig-Holstein.
- 1866. War between Austria and Prussia.
Venice ceded to Italy.
- 1870-1871. Franco-Prussian War.
Proclamation of the German Empire at Versailles.
- 1875-1878. Risings in the Balkans.
The "Bulgarian Atrocities."
- 1879. The Russo-Turkish War.
Treaty of Berlin.
Creation of Bulgaria, Rumania, Serbia and Montenegro declared independent and Sovereign States.
Alliance between Germany and Austria.

- 1882. Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy.
- 1885. Union of the two Bulgarias.
- 1885-1886. War between Bulgaria and Serbia.
- 1889. *Entente* between France and Russia.
- 1895. Alliance between France and Russia.
- 1896. "Splendid Isolation" of Great Britain.
War with France averted.
- 1897. War between Greece and Turkey.
- 1898. War between United States and Spain.
- 1899. Peace Conference at the Hague on proposal of the Tsar.
- 1899-1902. South-African War.
- 1902. Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1904. Anglo-French Agreement.
- 1904-1905. War between Russia and Japan.
- 1905. War threatened between France and Germany.
Algeiras Conference.
Revolution in Russia.
Separation of Norway and Sweden.
- 1907. Anglo-Russian Convention.
Second Hague Conference.
- 1908. Young Turk Revolution at Constantinople.
Austria annexes Bosnia-Herzegovina.
Bulgaria proclaims her independence.
War threatened.
- 1909. German threat to Russia. War averted.
Declaration of London.
- 1911. The Panther at Agadir.
War with difficulty averted.
- 1912. Italy annexes Tripoli.
War between Italy and Turkey.
First Balkan War.
- 1913. Second Balkan War.
- 1914. General European War.

ADDITIONS TO THE EMPIRE.

An interesting indication of territorial changes already effected by the War appears in a recent issue of the *Gazette of India* in the following announcement :—The Governor-General in Council is pleased to declare that Samoa, New Guinea (except Dutch New Guinea), the Bismarck Archipelago comprising New Britain, New Ireland, New Hanover, the Admiralty Islands, etc., the island of Laura in the Marshall Islands, the islands of Bougainville and Buka in the Solomon Islands, and the districts of Lomeland, Misahote, Kette-Karachi as well as the part of the Mangu-Yendi district forming the Dagomba country in Togo, shall be added to the list of British possessions for which the letter rate of postage from India is one anna per ounce.

General.

WHY AMERICA IS NEUTRAL?*

President Wilson says: "Do you realise that, roughly speaking, we are the only great nation at present disengaged? I am not speaking, of course, with disparagement of the greater of those nations in Europe which are not parties to the present war, but I am thinking how their lives much more than ours touch the very heart and soul of the business, whereas we have rolling between us and those bitter days across the water 3,000 miles of cool and silent ocean.

"Our atmosphere is not yet charged with those disturbing elements which must be felt and must permeate every nation in Europe. Therefore is it not likely that the nations of the world will some day turn to us for the cooler assessment of the elements engaged? I am not now thinking so preposterous a thought as that we should sit in judgment upon them. No nation is fit to sit in judgment upon any other nation, but we shall some day have to assist in reconstructing the processes of peace. Our resources are untouched. We are more and more becoming by force of circumstances the mediating nation of the world in respect of its finances. We must make up our minds what are the best things to do and what are the best way to do them.

"So that I am not speaking in a selfish spirit when I say that our whole duty for the present, at any rate, is summed up in this motto: 'America first.' Let us think of America before we think of Europe in order that America may be fit to be Europe's friend when the day of tested friendship comes. The test of friendship is not now sympathy with one side or the other, but getting ready to help both sides when the struggle is over.

"The basis of neutrality, gentlemen, is not indifference, it is not self-interest. The basis of neutrality is sympathy for mankind. It is fairness, it is goodwill. At the bottom it is impartiality of spirit and judgment. I wish that all of our fellow-citizens could realise that. There is in some quarters a disposition to create distempers in this body politic. Men are even uttering slanders against the United States as if to excite her. Men are saying that if we should

go to war upon either side there will be a divided America—an abominable libel of ignorance.

"We are the mediating nation of the world. I do not mean we undertake not to mind our own business and to mediate where other people are quarrelling. I mean the word in a broader sense. We are compounded of the nations of the world. We mediate their blood, we mediate their traditions; we mediate their sentiments, their tastes, their passions. We are ourselves compounded of those things; we are therefore able to understand all nations."

Emphasizing the necessity of national self-control, President Wilson said: "I am interested in neutrality because there is something so much greater to do than fight, because there is a distinction waiting for this nation that no nation has ever yet got, that is the distinction of absolute self-control and self-mastery.

"Whom do you admire most among your friends? The irritable man, the man out of whom you can get a rise without trying the man who will fight at the drop of the hat, whether he knows what the hat is dropped for or not? Don't you admire and don't you fear if you have to contest with him, the self-mastered man who watches you with a calm eye and comes in only when you have carried the thing so far that you must be disposed of?

"That is the man you respect, that is the man who you know has at the bottom a much more fundamental and terrible courage than the irritable fighting man. Now, I covet for America this splendid courage of reserve moral force, and I wanted to point out to you, gentlemen, simply this: There is news and news. There is what is called news, that turns out to be falsehood at any rate in what it is said to signify and which if you could get the nation to believe, if true, might disturb our equilibrium and our self-possession.

Concluding his speech, President Wilson said: "If I permit myself to be partisan in this present struggle I would be unworthy to represent you; if I permitted myself to forget the people who are not partisans, I would be unworthy to represent you. I am not saying that I am worthy to represent you, but I do claim this degree of worthiness that before everything else I love America."

* An interview with American Press Representatives.

THE INDIAN ARMY.



NAIK DARWAN SING NEGI, LEADING ROUND THE TRAVERSES AT FESTUBERT AND THEREBY WINNING THE VICTORIA CROSS.
"The Illustrated London News"—Great War Decade.



**NAIK DARWAN SINGH NEGI,
THE HAVALDAR WITH THE V. C. ON HIS BREAST.**

THE INDIAN REVIEW

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THE WAR AND WESTERN CIVILISATION

BY DR. SIR RAMAKRISHNA GOPAL BHANDARKAR, K.C.I.E.

IN 1857-58, while I was a student in the Elphinstone College, Bombay, Mr. Sidney Owen, who was sent out as Professor of History and Political Economy in that year, read out to us passages from a number of books, expressive of sympathy and love for mankind in general without distinction of race, creed or the stage of civilization arrived at. In such literature as I read privately, I also observed suggestions of Universal Love and of the "Parliament of Man and the Federation of the World." In later years, I found in European literature evidence of the rise and progress of a liberal religious faith, based upon a newly acquired acquaintance with the religious truth contained in other religions than Christianity, especially in those of India. The effect of this seemed to me to be to neglect differences and bring about mutual appreciation and sympathy between the followers of the various religions, calculated ultimately to strengthen the feeling of unity among the different races of mankind. This liberal religion laid particular stress upon the purification and elevation of the human heart and passed by or neglected artificial dogmas of a nature to cause bitterness and bring about feuds. So that there loomed before me a brighter political and spiritual future for mankind.

But there soon appeared black clouds in the horizon. The Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71 was the parent of one of these. Bismarck's policy of achieving dominant power for Prussia, and subsequently Germany in Europe, led him to inflict such humiliation on the French nation as it was impossible for that nation to forget. The two countries have since that time been looking askance at each other and increasing their armaments and seeking alliances with a view to try

final conclusions. In the meantime, Bismarck's policy of dominance in Europe was considered too narrow by his pupil, the young Kaiser, and he widened it to a policy of world-domination. This, of course, was impossible unless England's sea-power was reduced, if not destroyed, and England humbled as France was in 1871. Thus there began a naval rivalry between the two countries. Things went on in this way; each of the dominant powers suspecting the others and looking at them with a jealous eye. The spirit of humanity, i.e., of sympathy for mankind in general, which, I believed, was making progress in Europe, gave way to the spirit of nationality, i.e., the wish of one nation to promote its own selfish interests to the sacrifice of those of others. Thus the terrible war, now in progress, began. These interests are only of a material nature, such as the promotion of trade and of manufactures. And for the promotion of these material interests, i.e., for the attainment of more loaves and fishes, what is the price Europe is paying! The blood of hundreds of thousands of human beings is being poured at the altar of the War-God; the moral sense is being corrupted; cathedrals and other works of art are being demolished; asphyxiating gases are being used for putting the enemy to a cruel death; wells are poisoned, women violated; and unoffending people massacred. If the current reports are true, one at least of the combatants is guilty of these inhuman and beastly deeds. Such are the extremes to which the desire for material aggrandisement has driven one of the foremost nations of Europe. The spirit of human sympathy and love seems to have entirely disappeared, and "the Parliament of Man" has evaporated into thin air.

The truth appears to me to be, that material civilization has alone made incredible progress in

Europe, and the spiritual elevation of man, which was so much talked about, had no solid foundation and melted away under the strain of the desire for material good. And to justify this change, even a new philosophy has been invented, and the Super-man for whose aggrandisement all men of ordinary powers should be sacrificed as a matter of right has come into prominence. The old German philosophy, that of Kant, Fichte, Schleiermacher and others, the tendency of which is to ennoble the human spirit, has paled away before that of Nietzsche. The reason may be that ennobling philosophy is all good for talk and insincere admiration; but when material interests come in for consideration and the desire for securing them becomes strong, it is unceremoniously flung away. This is the case with individuals as well as nations; and when they happen

to be intelligent, they devise a new philosophy to justify their course of action.

We are afraid in India of this new philosophy, which is calculated to justify the sacrifice of us, weak people, for the aggrandisement of the German Super-man; but thanks to the British Navy, we are free from such a contingency. No Indian wishes to change masters. There is every likelihood after this war is over of India's being thoroughly consolidated with other parts of the British Empire, so as to form a harmonious whole and of our coming into closer intimacy with Englishmen. We are proud of our Gurkhas, Punjabis, Sikhs, Baluchis and Marathas, being invited to co-operate with Englishmen in fighting for the liberties of mankind, and are proud also of the brilliant achievements of our men on the field of battle.

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THE WAR & SOME LESSONS FOR INDIA

BY SIR NARAYAN CHANDAVARKAR, K.C.I.E.

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JUST a few months after His Majesty the King Emperor had come to India for the Coronation Durbur at Delhi in 1911, and awakened the soul of his Indian subjects by knitting their hearts afresh to the British Throne and the heart of England, a high-placed British official in India, speaking to me on the subject of His Majesty's visit and the wave of loyalty which had swept the country at that time to the delight of all, remarked: "It has been splendid but how long will it last? I am doubtful." In my humble way I answered I entertained no doubt it would last and fructify. This war has proved that the loyalty of India, to which impetus was given by the attractive personality of His Majesty, is sound. I notice that by some thoughtful men a distinction is made between the loyalty of the Indian masses—the large volume of our villagers—and the educated classes. It is remarked that the loyalty of the former is *passive* and that of the latter *active* and more reasoned. Some have gone the extent of observing that our villagers are indifferent who rules—whether "Rama or Ravana." I cannot subscribe to that observation. It is true that when the times were disturbed continually, peace was rare and security of life and property constantly threatened, the Indian villager, unaccustomed to organised and settled rule, thought of all rulers as alike and hence

the proverbial tradition putting Rama and Ravana on the same level. But a century and more of settled Government under the British has changed the villagers' point of view and, in the villages I have been to during the last six months I have met villagers expressing in their own way their keen sense of appreciation of British rule and hating the very idea of a change of Government. In that respect the educated classes and the uneducated masses feel the same. It is no empty and conventional expression to say that the war has brought out the fine spirit and faith of India, both high and low, townsman and villager alike.

The war has taught and is teaching more. That Germany was, ever since her success in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, preparing for another war with a view to crush France was more or less believed but none expected that the dogs of war would be let loose so soon and that Germany would be found so lost to all sense of shame and morality as she has been daily proving to be. The war came like a thief when all had seemed secure and safe—when, in fact, we were all laying the unction to our souls that modern civilization with the march of industry and science made for comity of nations and the brotherhood of man. But the civilization has proved a burden. Germany, ruled by a military caste,

stands before us as a warning against caste rule and ascendancy. The materialistic spirit of the nineteenth century—nations competing with one another for commercial supremacy—is laid bare before us in all its nakedness. Science which professed to heal man has come to destroy him and his home by means of submarines, zeppelins, bombs, and poisonous gases. And the grim situation was summed up by the *Times* in its Literary Supplement of March 11, when it said: "As they," (the Germans), "assume that anything may be done for victory, so we have assumed that anything may be done for money. That is our doctrine as foolish as the doctrine of war and based upon the same trust in animal instincts and disbelief in the spirit. It is because we have not valued the beauty of our past so much as money that we have destroyed it and made no beauty of our own to take its place."

The war has enabled us to see life, individual and national, in its true perspective and to discern in hard lesson the ancient truth oft obscured that a nation *lives* truly and worthily only when it pursues material wealth as subservient to spiritual ends—for the cultivation and exaltation of its spirit of righteousness exemplified by the good and simple lives of its people, the pure tone of its literature and arts, the healing effects of its science, and the unsoiled character of its public men running on the same plane of high principle whether in public or private. "We are learning to see a new value in truths we learnt at our mother's knee," says Professor Jacks, Editor of the *Hibbert Journal*, in his article on "England's Experience with the Real Things," published in the *Yale Review*.

With these general reflections let me turn to some more specific, simple, and clear lessons of the war as we have learnt them so far. They are as follows:—

(1) A people's greatness depends not on their numbers or the extent of their territory but on their self-less spirit. A nation may be small and even weak as compared to others, and yet it can stand up and fight the foes of God and liberty and serve humanity and earn its reward in the Eternal Book of Life if its soul is great. Witness Belgium and its King and people. As the Belgian poet Emily Vaerhaeren puts it: "Belgium has proved the most vital rampart of modern civilization. Before this sudden baptism we were hardly a nation at all. We have now discovered ourselves." And Cardinal Mercier's pastoral Letter! What a precious gift! It counsels Belgians and through them the world that the laws of con-

science are sovereign laws—that "suffering passes away, the crown of life for our souls, the crown of glory for our nation, shall not pass away."

(2) The war has given us heart-beats in the form of phrases which will and ought to live and endure in our being as the pure wells of life. I cite but two, though more can be gleaned and given. Note what a common British soldier living in the trenches at the front wrote: "*I am living on the top of the fulness of life*"—a phrase, of which it has been rightly said that even that artistic master of phrases, Louis Stevenson, could not have perhaps coined it. It is when we struggle with life's difficulties and endure hardships for God, country, and righteousness that we see how life is full and worthy. It is then that the sigh of war gives the song of God. Here is another phrase:—"Anonymous courage" used by Mons. Poincaré, President of the French Republic, when he praised the soldiers of the Allies for the glorious anonymity of their courage—for fighting without any hope of reputation, unknown to fame and unadvertised except in the mass as soldiers. In an advertising age, when great men of whom the world and newspapers speak are mentioned and praised almost daily, it is well to know and be reminded that "the real hero of the war" is, as *Punch* described in his Cartoon of December 30, 1914, the ordinary soldier—the private—who fights, dies, is buried—no one knows where—"somewhere in France or Flanders."

And among these heroes of "anonymous courage," our brethren of the Indian army at the front, fighting for our King with dauntless spirit and covering themselves with glory and reflecting it on their country—our own flesh and blood—stand not behind their British and French compeers. There is the battle cry—advance India with England! It is the forerunner of the song which shall follow peace for India and England—is it not? That ought to be typical of all life, whether in war or peace. "Anonymous courage," the courage that seeks no fame but does its duty known only to God—"that loves Heaven's silence more than fame."

(3) Till before the war we were all *evolutionists*—Darwin's disciples. The war has effected a sudden change. The President of the British Association for the Advance of Science questioned but sometime ago whether *evolution* is the only right word and theory of Man's individual, social and national progress and emancipation, and he declared as his belief that a great change in characteristics does not imply slow attainment but that many such changes come immediately.

In other words, Man educates ; God only regenerates. Witness the lesson of the war on its temperance side. In 1840 Life Insurance Companies were known to charge a total abstainer ten per cent. more than the ordinary premium because they regarded him as "thin and watery and as mentally cranked, in that he repudiated the good creatures of God as found in Alcoholic Drinks." Till but the war to drink wine and whisky was considered fashionable and respectable. But in a trice Russia gives up her drink ; France follows ; England is following ; His Majesty King George has set the example and the cause of temperance weak but eight months ago wins—a moral miracle !

(4) The sacredness of motherhood and the sanctity of the marriage tie are now realised more vividly than before the war. Before the war, in prosperity and peace, wealth and luxury accumulated, and the motherhood of purity declined. Liberty was turning into license in Europe. The war has had an awakening effect. Marriage is in favour. Couples living in "free union" in the name of that bastard phrase of the new civilisation—"free love"—have been in France and elsewhere legitimising their relation. In England Archbishops have been advising volunteers to marry before going to the front : "Better be married a minute than die an old maid."

"Men save the country, women the race."

"Man is progress but woman is tradition."

There are war's awakening angels of Peace !

(5) The war has also taught us that mere development of the intellect is no education. Education must be of the heart. "Kultur" and "Cultur" we worshipped before the war forgetting how Germany had fallen slowly from the original. We now examine, find and are instructed that those words did not occur in "Deutsches Worterbuch" of Jacob and Grimm, the publication of which began in 1860 ; that in Meyer's "Konversations Lexicon" published in 1896 the words meant the cultivation of the spiritual life of man ; but that from 1870 they slowly developed their present meaning—viz., the brutal energy of the Super-man—with the feeling heart nowhere but the aggressive diplomat with earth-hunger and demoniac spirit everywhere.

(6) Above all, here is the greatest lesson of the war taught by the heart of a dog : A boat-load of the survivors of H.M.S. *Formidable* which was sunk on January 1st, 1914, were landed at Lyme Regis. One of the crew, W. S. Cowan, was placed on the *Pilot Boat Hotel*. He was believed to have died and all attempts to revive him failed.

The doctors gave him up and went to where the rest lay to attend to them. Just then, a dog named "Lassie" came, lay alongside Cowan's body, its heart on his, and it went on licking his face. In half an hour Cowan opened his eyes, moved his legs and hands—and the dog's bark of joy attracted notice, and it was discovered that "the warmth of the dog's body against Cowan's heart and the constant licking of his face had induced circulation."

Cowan revived and lived !

God in the dog's heart !

"I am in the hearts of all," says God in our Gita—even a dog's. And yet men kill one another ?

The war has taught wisdom—from even a dog.

To sum up, we stand disillusioned by the war. True religion—the love of God and Man—"the real wealth" as our *Bhagavat Purana* calls it, has come by its own—the spiritual is asserting itself.


For India,—here is new light on its ancient path—and for England too—the whole of the British Empire. It is the most dreadful war but it has been the greatest awakener ! Our politics and industrialism must needs be dominated by the spiritual force of the loving heart, which shall burn by its consuming fire our race pride, our caste pride, and our intellectual self-conceit and enable us to strive for political and industrial advancement as humble worshippers in the Temple of Him, Who is One without a Second and Who is Truth and Love.

Will all this spiritual awakening which we witness last when England wins, peace comes, and the civilised world begins afresh ? Let us hope and pray eagerly it may ! Lord Bryce with his authority as historian has already given the warning against the lowering of ideals generally following a great war. And Lord Bryce's testimony as a historian finds countenance in our own Puranic traditions. Arjuna wavered, Shri Krishna discoursed and roused the soul of the soldier by teaching him to do his duty for duty's sake. Arjuna fought with all the faith and fervour of God's devotee. And Arjuna with Shri Krishna's aid won. Peace followed—a fresh prosperity. Arjuna with the lively memory cherished in his heart of the celestial song discoursed to him at the beginning of the war to hearten him asked Shri Krishna to sing the same song again. And Shri Krishna answered "Gone is the Song. Not again." May God grant it shall not be so with us when the war ends, Britain wins, and peace follows. May it be the peace of God for our Empire—with the war and inequalities and tragedies of race, caste and creed ended, too, throughout the British Empire and through its righteous spirit throughout the world !

REFLECTIONS ON THE WAR

BY HON. DR. DEVAPRASAD SARVADHIKARY, C.I.E., M.A., L.L.D.,

(Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University.)

ULTURE—an honoured name hitherto—has in the eyes of many come to be covered with shame and ignominy because of its barbarous and unwarrantable parading in connection with the atrocities of the present war. It is inexplicably forgotten that spelt with a capital "K," the terrible commodity has no real affinity or concern with the improvement or adornment of individual mind or character or national character for the matter of that, which is the true adjunct of real culture. 'Kultur' merely connotes State efficiency. The State like a gigantic brain controls as through an elaborate system of nerve, the life of its citizens. The individual is washed, clothed, fed, educated and almost put to bed by State agency where Kultur reigns, and in its widest sense it is ultimately intended for the purposes of the maintenance and increase of efficiency of the State. And what wonder it panders to State Russianism.

The Old Heraclitan strife conceived as the father of all things—the old rule of Fate or discord—the Pagan view of Fate as the arbiter of the destinies of nations as of individuals is the cult of Kultur. An eternal rush and eternal cycle of misery and unrest as the goal-less goal is the order of the day.

There is another prevailing misapprehension. Sometimes one hears of the ancient wisdom of this country as the parent of German idealism. The claim may be partly true; but only in form, and not in substance. It is a matter of history that some of the Upanishads translated into Persian by Dara Shikoh fell into the hands of a wandering French scholar, Auquentil Duperron, who rendered them into French. Schopenhaur drew his inspiration from Duperron's French translation of Dara Shikoh's Persian version. They sought Eastern lore and wisdom to assuage burning thirst. But they chose not the pure and undefiled fountain-head but preferred turbid streams turned Westward by amiable but *unentitled* dilettantes. The stream of German idealism rising from such a source may not inaptly be said to have ended with Hegel, and such may be the historical establishment of the paternity. But there are moral qualifications without which study of the books of wisdom is worse than useless, nay, positively injurious. Under colour of "biologi-

cal necessity" and for undoing "historical wrong," whatever that may signify, poisoning of wells, petrol shells, obnoxious gases and abounding lies are but the least of equipments for the overthrow of civilization and the established order of things. Modern Moloch thus raises his altar on which individuals, families, institutions, nay the eternal verities are to be sacrificed. The everlasting harmony of the All, correcting and chastening and uplifting its surroundings, is to be banished for ever, and all that is Right and Good and True are alike to end, in order that Wrong alone should reign supreme and nothing be left to compare it with but its own ghastly self. Engines of destruction are to be directed not merely to conquest political supremacy but for purposes, according to authorised War Books, which makes decency and propriety blush and shiver. Races and systems that are in the way must be wiped off the face of the earth.

The militarist ideal had always been Germany's evil genius—an incubus that she had again and again sought to overthrow; but she always succumbed in the end. This is true about the Germany of Tacitus down through the Germany of Carlovingians, and further down through the Germany of the Middle Ages to the latter day Prussianised Germany we know so well.

And not Germany alone has been affected; in the sphere of business and industry, in science and art, as in military organization, the world has been hypnotized more or less by German ideals and German methods. Rigid absolutism has been rampant, of which the Hegelian Absolute was but a ghostly forerunner, going hand in hand with a rigid mechanism, crushing in the end by sheer mass and dead weight, by drill and routine, all instinct and initiative of free play of spontaneity. Most potent, unfortunately, has this hypnotism been in the world of education,—the academic world. The ancient story of Indra and Virochan as to the choice between wisdom and power has been re-enacted in the field of German thought. Maddened by lust of power they saw the vision of a world committing suicide, as a consummation to be devoutly wished for, and in the name of Zarathustra sounded the trumpet of Ahriman. Great mad men, hierarchs of a mad world!

Purification by fire and sword invoked for their own betterment will be, no doubt, left to do its work for the permanent good of the world. Now, that the militarist or barrack view of human life and society have been seen bare in all its ugliness and deformity, we may hope that the educational, social, and the economical ideals of the modern world will be freed from the baneful spell hitherto cast upon them. German history, German economics, German philosophy manufactured to imperial order as so much ammunition of war, as so much gun-cotton and glycerine have gone the way of all such ammunition—have violently exploded as all explosive must do in the end. And the authority of the entire Theological and Philosophical Faculties of German Universities will fail to impose again on a disillusionised world. Though captive Science may for a time be harnessed to the chariot of Power, she will be freed from her chain by the angel of Wisdom, which even now hovers over the din and tumult of a battling world.

The same moral forces which, as the Indian tradition has it, has twenty-one times denuded the world of a rampant militarism, will do so again—for the twenty-second time—and may it be the last time in the world's history.

India's share in this world struggle, though she is intensely interested in the stake, has been infinitesimal so far, though our rulers are generous enough to magnify them, beyond proportions. What little has been achieved has been largely due to the magnetic personality of Lord Hardinge, who impresses and influences all that come across him.

The least of India's contributions towards this Titanic struggle has been that of Bengal, though it is not the least significant. Advancement of learning with which the University has been identified for 60 years has achieved notable results in this direction and in a way least expected and least thought of.

The history of the Bengal Field Ambulance Corps, with its chequered career, is soon told. Soon after the war broke out and India was called upon to play her part, the President of the Bengal Medical Association offered the services of the Association in the work of mercy that must be associated with fields of carnage. The Viceroy was good enough to reply that the offer would be borne in mind and accepted in proper time. The offer was repeated through the great Town Hall Meeting that expressed the nation's sentiments towards the Throne in this awful

crisis, and before it could be materialised a number of the Indian Medical Graduates was, in consultation with the President of the Medical Association who had enlisted them for the proposed Ambulance Corps, absorbed as members of the orthodox and official medical corps for doing field duty in different parts of the world. They have quietly gone for unknown periods to unknown destinations on a few hours' notice, in true soldier fashion, to do their duty. A dying wife here, a sick child there, aged parents elsewhere, were left behind to be cared for by their country and their Government. What long and sustained political agitation failed to achieve was quietly achieved over-right, for the Hour had come and the Man had been found. And the man was Lord Hardinge. Our medical graduates who were standing by as members of the Field Ambulance Corps and who never thought that their degrees by themselves would be direct passports to the honoured glory of their King's Commission, were summoned to service by the Viceroy to take their place by the side of I. M. S. men and R. M. Service men. Others and many more were soon found to take their place. The Bengal Volunteer Field Ambulance Corps which has been formed and drilled into shape, is awaiting employment in a suitable sphere. The organisers, when nearly ready with their land organisation, were told by the authorities that a Floating Hospital in the Mesopotamia regions would be more acceptable than a land corps, and with a phenomenal rapidity the "ideal" troop transport boat, "the very thing" as an European high official enthusiastically called it, was discovered, turned into an up-to-date and fully equipped Hospital. It received the blessings of the community and the rulers in due form, was named the *Bengali* in the people's name, and was on her way to her mission of mercy when cruel fate overtook her opposite Madras. But the organisers did not lose heart. Within 15 minutes of this crushing news reaching one of the Secretaries of the movement, he wired up to Simla offering further service in whatever other capacity might be deemed fit. His committee have ratified this offer and a field hospital with 200 beds is being equipped. Their renewed offers of service have been accepted, and they will soon go to the front as a Land force.

The way that the Secretary put the case to himself and to his colleagues is characteristic. "Bengal must not exaggerate this loss. The foundering of the *Bengali* has not cost the people in money more than a single shot of a Dreadnaught

or one of its single lifeboats costs. Bengal wins by this loss in public esteem."

Its graduates and under-graduates showed themselves ready to go wherever and whenever they were told to go, and they are still ready to go. That is no little gain when one contemplates the picture drawn of our medical graduates by the first Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University fifty-seven years ago:—

"It may also be doubted whether the social and religious peculiarities of the natives of this country have not contributed as powerfully as any constitutional infirmity or defect to that listlessness, and that indisposition to locomotion and adventure which have painfully distinguished some of the most promising graduates of the Medical College from the members of their profession of other races."

As I ventured to remind the Convocation of the Calcutta University on the 6th March last in the presence of his Excellency the Chancellor, this was a faulty and overdrawn picture even then. Almost while this picture was being portrayed a Graduate of the Medical College of Bengal, who had been Naval Surgeon in Her Majesty's gunboat "Fire Queen", in the Burma waters and be-

came Military Surgeon later on, helped by timely warning and personal exertions in the defence of Gazipore during the stirring times of the Indian Mutiny, and as Surgeon-in-Charge marched with the victorious column of Havelock and Niell to the final relief of Lucknow and won the approbation of his Commanders, his Governor and his people. The race has not died out as some thought, but must have steadily and noiselessly multiplied. The man and the hour have found them out again, and that man is our large-hearted far-seeing and sympathetic Viceroy, whom dire personal injuries and a cruelly quick succession of bereavements touch not where public duties are concerned. The brave and generous way in which he has consented at duty's call to be with us in the critical times ahead, is thoroughly characteristic. Self-less devotion to India in Lord Hardinge's cult and creed which was fully shared in, nay, inspired by his departed and dear consort.

India has responded to the Empire's call with a thorough zeal and will. Elsewhere it is her Princes, her men of wealth and valour that have been most in evidence. In Bengal it is mostly graduates and under-graduates of the University that are to the fore.

What Is War? Will It Ever Cease?

BY MR. DINSHAW EDULJI WACHA.

AL over the world the question is put when this Armageddon on the continent of Europe will cease? It is a natural question. But how may it be answered? It can only be answered in one way, namely, by cogitating and ruminating on what war may be? Trace it then to its first cause. What is it? It is nothing but a struggle of human passions for mastery. But human passions are, as Carlyle says, so many "eternal verities." Humanity is born with them, and they can only be dispelled when humanity itself ceases to exist.

Just take a calm but comprehensive survey of what our finite understanding calls "Nature." Survey it in all aspects as it presents itself to the human mind. There are the heavens above and the subterranean regions below. There is the surface itself of the globe which we inhabit. How do we interpret the innumerable phenomena

which this Nature presents itself to mankind with its limited knowledge. By that one key which the physicists have named Energy or Force, Energy pervades Nature. It is ever present in millions of shapes of which humanity knows next to nothing. Humanity is a babe picking up a few pebbles here and a few shells there while standing on the beach of the great ocean of Eternity, as that modest philosopher, Sir Isaac Newton observed in all the consciousness of humility. Energy is the driving force everywhere in the celestial and the terrestrial world, of which our common humanity has any knowledge. What may be the volcano but a mighty struggle of those mysterious forces within the bowels of the earth? Or what may be thunder and lightning in the skies or wind and rain, or light and darkness? Do not these inscrutable phenomena inform us how the mighty wheel of Energy is whirling itself

round and round its own centre without pause or breath, educing in its course gigantic collisions, and creating active elements or laying to sleep others? There is no limit to the permutations and combinations of energy in the universe. Energy pervades everywhere. Energy struggles against energy, the ultimate resultant of which is either destruction or creation. As the great poet says: "to create is to destroy." Mountains disappear under the titanic stress and strain of Energy, giving place to oceans and lakes. Lakes and oceans disappear to make way for mountains. Land is uplifted or submerged. Rivers submerge into the ocean, stars collide and create new suns. These in their turn go into darkness and again out of that chaos comes light. What do they all signify? Nothing but the eternal struggle of one set of energy against another. The same struggle is seen on the surface of the globe in the mineral and vegetable kingdom as much as in the animal. There is the phenomenon of perpetual evolution, a mighty evolution indeed of which we with our finite knowledge can hardly grasp or elucidate the significance. Whence that evolution proceeds, whither it goes, are a mystery. Finite man cannot fathom its infinity. All that we are able to say is that energy pervades the universe and that it destroys and creates. What in the absence of ought else we call Time and Space are also forms of the same Energy. But Energy itself is a mystery of mysteries.

We know and are conscious of the fact that that energy pervades humanity. There are forces within the body physical the origin of which none can divine. The forces are both physical and moral. Moral forces are the result of mentality or mental energy? Each moment of our lives those forces struggle within us, one of which we call strife. It is eternal. And if that be the case, can we not, on the analogy of the innumerable phenomena of Nature, say that war is simply an outer expression of that eternal inward strife or struggle of energies in humanity. If so, is it not conceivable that do what finite humanity may with all its boasted civilisation of a few thousand years—a mere bagatelle in the aeons of ages of which physicists speak—there is no way out of its environments to escape this great struggle? What are all the physical and celestial phenomena we attempt to interpret? Nothing but a perpe-

tual war, an ever-continuing of forces which, as the poet says, "none can stay or stem." So it is with human struggles which in their outward aspect lead to war. Wars there have been from times unknown since humanity had its origin, and war there will be till that humanity is purged of it. But *when*? Presumably when the struggle between what is called energy and energy ceases to exist. Meanwhile there will be cycles of war and cycles of no war so long as humanity is what it has been since the day of its birth. A radical change of environments must take place before any such millennium as we wish for is ever attained. After all it may be a pious wish on our part but that will in no way help to solve this problem. Century after century has rolled on, and century after century will follow. Just glance back at past history. What do you find? Century after century what is euphemiously called civilisation is said to have taken great strides towards ameliorating human conditions. But has it been the case that civilisation has eradicated from the human blood the microbe of war? Is it likely? From the days of the earliest wars in pre-historic times, which are wrapt in complete mystery, to those of the Egyptians, the Assyrians, the Persians, the Greeks and the Romans, to those of the medieval ages and thence to our days of Waterloo, Crimea, Solferino, Magenta, Gravelotte, Sodan, and Mukden there have been periods of tranquillity and periods of strife but have we ever heard of a full century of peace in any part of the world. More. What about the amenities and humanities of belligerents, when after 5,000 years of civilisation we find the Germans practising at this very hour barbarities which would have staggered and astonished even the Huns and Vandals? And has not our boasted Science aided them in practising those barbarities and cruelties in a way which makes the blood of the peaceful world of civilisation creep? Are we not entitled to say, therefore, that the progress of civilisation is no guarantee whatever of the cessation of war, much less of the expulsion from the human blood of that spirit of primitive barbarism, which stands only next to that of the wild beasts of prey of the species of the lion and the tiger, the wolf and the panther? No. To wish for the banishment of war from human affairs is as much as to wish for the cessation of light from the Sun.



H. E. LORD HARDINGE,
Viceroy of India.



RT. HON. MARQUESS OF CREWE,
Secretary of State for India.



H. E. SIR BEAUCHAMP DUFF,
Commander-in-Chief in India.

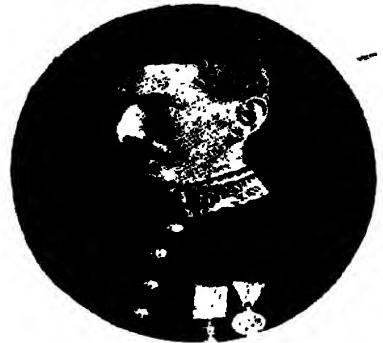


LIEUT. GEN. SIR JAMES WILLCOCKS,
Commanding Indian Army.

The Lieutenant-Governors.



SIR JAMES MESTON,
The United Provinces.



SIR M. F. O'DWYER,
The Punjab.



SIR HARVEY ADAMSON,
Late of Burma.



SIR HARCOURT BUTLER,
Burma.

The Chief Commissioners.



SIR BENJAMIN ROBERTSON,
The Central Provinces & Berar.



SIR CHARLES STUART BAYLEY,
Bihar and Orissa.



SIR G. O. ROOS-KEPPEL,
N. W. Frontier Province.



SIR ARCHDALE EARLE,
Assam.



H. E. LORD PENTLAND,
Governor of Madras.



H. E. LORD CARMICHAEL,
Governor of Bengal.



H. E. LORD WELLINGTON,
Governor of Bombay.




SIR ROBERT CHALMERS,
Governor of Ceylon.

WHY ITALY HAS DECLARED WAR ?

BY MR. A. GALLETTI, I.C.S.

(Cavaliere della Corona d'Italia.)

 RITING in September, 1914, at the beginning of the great war, I explained that the upper and middle classes in Italy, including military and naval officers, were largely in favour of intervention on the side of the Allies, but that the great mass of the people was opposed to any war; that Italy is not one of those countries in which the sentiments of the masses can be disregarded; that the sentiments of the king, whatever they might be, were of no importance in so democratic a country; and that Giolitti, the most distinguished of Italian statesmen, was likely, from what I knew of his character and past record, to throw his great and well-deserved influence on the side of continued neutrality.

The analysis of Italian sentiment, so far as it went, has been confirmed by events. Giolitti, the strongest and most influential of Italian statesmen, did in fact throw his great weight on the side of continued neutrality. Though not in office he was consulted in all the negotiations with Austria for a peaceful cession of Austrian territories inhabited chiefly by Italians. He was not without hope that these negotiations might be successful; but it was a programme limited to the realisation of the national principle, and the more ambitious members of the directing classes were not satisfied with so modest a programme. If Turkey were to be divided, they considered Italy should have her share.

The Salandra ministry was regarded merely as a stop-gap. It has maintained its position by being careful to refrain from taking the initiative and by following the lead of the majority of the directing classes who control press and parliament. The king also, whatever his private opinions may be, could only under the Italian constitution follow this lead. Such a conflict as occurred in Greece between the monarchy and the leader of the parliamentary majority was not possible in Italy.

Salandra, formerly a member of the small conservative group led by Sonnino, had in recent years drawn closer to Giolitti and his great central coalition party of all the liberal groups. Giolitti, an old man, tired of office, had withdrawn, as is

his custom from time to time. Salandra's ministry rested on the Giolittian central party and also on Sonnino's conservative group. Sonnino himself joined the cabinet later as foreign minister, a position in which a politician with the usual imperialistic tendencies of Tories, had great opportunities of steering the State towards war. Sonnino, known as the "100 days premier" has been prime minister twice, but on each occasion only for three months, during temporary eclipses of Giolitti's popularity. The king had on these occasions to offer him the premiership as head of the conservative opposition. But the conservative group is so small and has so little backing in the country that Giolitti had twice, after 100 days, to take office again. Salandra's position was at first what Sonnino's had been on these two occasions, that of a mere stop-gap. The war has kept him in office.

Sonnino's mother was English, and he speaks Italian with a slight English accent. He belongs, like most Tory statesmen, to the upper circles of society, and married a Roman princess. Ferdinando Martini, next to Salandra and Sonnino the most prominent member of the ministry, also married into a great Roman house, well-known in history, that of the Dukes Lante della Rovere, and thereby became connected with the chief families in Rome, including my own. He is a Jingo, who had much to do with Italy's wild Abyssinian adventures and was for five years Governor of Erythrea, the Italian colony in those parts. He is at the same time a highly cultivated man, author of many books, and the best turner of phrases in Italy.

The king is also a highly cultivated man, and very different from the Emperors of Germany, Austria and Russia, whose education, training and outlook are those of second lieutenants in the army. Victor Emmanuel III. has always been devoted to all liberal studies and especially history. He is the highest living authority on Italian numismatics. He hates putting on a uniform, and takes ten times as much interest in the improvement of agriculture as in the strengthening of the army and navy. He founded, and partly maintains from the privy purse, the most useful International Agricultural Institute at Rome.

He was probably as unwilling to go to war as Giolitti, but as a constitutional monarch was bound to obey the parliamentary majority.

Why did the directing classes in Italy take nine months to make up their minds? In the first place, the process of forming and ascertaining opinion where the decision rests with large numbers of persons of all classes is naturally slower than in countries governed or led by an autocrat assisted by a small privileged caste. In the next place, opinions were very much divided at first and it has only lately become clear that the war party really had a majority. In the third place, there was a practically unanimous feeling that neutrality must be maintained until a very large number of men had been re-called to the army and re-trained, and very large stores of material had been collected.

So far as I can judge there has been a considerable change of feeling in the course of these months; the following expressions from a letter recently received from an Italian relative of my own may perhaps be taken as typical:—"I think I can say that my sympathies for the Germans have vanished and that I hope they will be so thoroughly beaten that their military power will be annihilated for centuries. The methods of war to which they have recourse with the pretence of being more cultured and civilised than the other nations make it very clear that it would not be pleasant to have them as masters of the world. They failed by very little of success. If Italy had not remained neutral and Belgium had not delayed the Kaiser's feast, the German programme would by now have been accomplished; for, after conquering France, they would easily have conquered England. Apart from the pretexts for the war—which in any case were better chosen by the *Entente*—it is certain that Germany aimed specially at the overthrow of England, while England was allowing German power to exist undisturbed.—This outburst is necessary to me not to discuss the pretexts and responsibilities of the several Governments but only to express the feeling that we Latins cannot admire the cruelties which our Ex-Allies commit on women, old men, children, unfortified cities, etc., and this on the basis of regulations, on principle, from calculation."

The Italian directing classes are humane and civilised, and I should judge that the German methods of barbarism have had a considerable share in driving them into the war.

The military power of Italy is of course much greater than that of England and scarcely infe-

rior to the French, if she were to put forth her full strength. If Italy were to be invaded she could place two million trained men of the more active age in the front line and keep another million of veterans and new recruits in reserve. However an invasion in force of Italy is not very probable, and for the objects which she has in view a field army of three quarters of a million picked men will probably suffice. This should be enough to draw away a million Austro-Germans and relieve the pressure on the eastern and western fronts. For mountain warfare on the Austrian frontier the Italians have specially trained and selected corps, the *Alpinis* and the *Bersaglieri*. Their new artillery—75 millimetre like the French—is supposed to be good; and their rifle is a very neat little weapon with light cartridges, which facilitates carriage of the arm and ammunition by the soldier, manufacture and transport. Italy is covered with rifle-ranges and perhaps there is no country in Europe except Switzerland where so large a portion of the male population can shoot. Target-shooting is a favourite Sunday recreation.

On the other hand, it is doubtful whether the men will fight with the courage and enthusiasm of the Germans. The masses are probably, unlike the directing classes, preponderatingly neutralist.

The generals no one knows anything about. There are no familiar names. The senior men will be in command at the beginning of the campaign to be replaced gradually by younger men who show military capacity.

Zupelli, the minister of war, is not one of the more senior generals. He was born at Pola, an Italian town in Austrian territory, and may have been chosen for his local knowledge. Curiously enough Caneva, the Commander-in-Chief in the Tripoli war, was also an Austrian-Italian. Caneva restored to Italian rule a country strewn with Roman remains. If under Zupelli's administration the Italian army restores Pola to Italy, it will find there a well-preserved triumphal arch of that great people which gave peace and civilisation to all the shores of the Mediterranean, *mare nostrum*. Reminiscences such as these have probably had a great share in driving the cultivated Italians into war. Their object, as they themselves put it, is to regain their old position of supremacy in the Mediterranean. To superior men like Giolitti these appear wild dreams and visions; but the majority of the directing classes in Italy are very imaginative; and war was practically declared in an imaginative celebration at Quarto, near Genoa, on the 4th of

May, where a crowd of personages from all parts of Italy, including a Prince of the House of Savoy, assembled to hear the poet D'Annunzio declaim in flowery periods on the past greatness of Italy and the apparently insane, but successful expedition of the Thousand under Garibaldi, who started from Quarto in two small sailing-ships to conquer the kingdom of the two Sicilies. The king and the ministers were to have been present to applaud the rhetoric of the poet, but decided at the last minute not to go, presumably because they were busy with war preparations and had no time for the jaunt.

In conclusion, two things may be noted : firstly, Italy declared her neutrality before it was known whether England, or even France, intended to fight, and exposed herself to an Austro-German attack, because she would be no party to the attack on Serbia ; secondly, Italy has declared war without waiting to see which way the cat would jump ; she has not rushed to the relief of the victors ; on the east the Russians have just suffered a crushing defeat ; on the west the Germans retain the great advantages they secured at the beginning of the war ; Turkey has more than held her own in the Dardanelles.

THE CENTENARY OF WATERLOO

BY REV. ARTHUR R. SLATER,

The centenary of the great battle of Waterloo, June 18th, will lead many to renew their acquaintance with the descriptions of the "great battle which ended the twenty-three years' war of the first French Revolution, and which quelled the man whose genius and ambition had so long disturbed and desolated the world." For over twenty years the whole of Europe had been in the throes of war, and every country lived with a sense of fear hanging over it. Napoleon had captured the imagination of his own country, he had gathered around him a large company of men of courage, and with these he had overrun Europe, bringing kings into subjection, and adding not a little to the possessions of his country. But at last he was himself overthrown and forced to abdicate. Accompanied by four Commissioners, one from each of the great Allied Powers, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and England, he was conveyed from the scene of his former power and glory, to the little island of Elba, where it was believed he would not have any opportunity, either of escape, or of plotting further schemes against his own country or the Allies. The representatives of the European Powers met in Vienna to discuss the remodelling of Europe, confident that the power of the tyrant was broken for ever but their deliberations were interrupted by the announcement of Taleyrand on the 11th of March, that the ex-Emperor had escaped from Elba and was Emperor of France once more. Immediately they set about the making of plans which would successfully

overthrow again the arch-enemy. But in this formidable confederacy there were several who did not rise above petty jealousies and division, and but for the active spirit of Taleyrand, the schemes of Napoleon for their secession might have been successful. A manifesto was drawn up, describing Napoleon as an outlaw, followed by a scheme of military action, largely inspired by the genius of the Duke of Wellington, then considered the greatest living general after Napoleon. It was obvious that Belgium would be the ground on which the first battles would be fought, and by the unanimous wish of the Allies, Wellington proceeded there to assemble an army as quickly as possible, while the rest returned to their respective countries to raise other forces in support. The strenuous efforts of the Allies to meet the Emperor were met by equally strenuous activities on the part of Napoleon who, in spite of the reverses of the three previous years, gathered together a large army of troops of trained men. The two foes Napoleon knew he would have to face at once, for he knew that the Russian, Bavarian, and Austrian troops would of necessity approach slowly were the British under Wellington, and the Prussians under Blucher. Napoleon possessed this great advantage over his foes, that he was in sole charge of an army consisting entirely of Frenchmen, while the enemy's troops were under two generals, and consisted of members of many nations. Behind the strong line of fortresses on the Belgian frontier, Napoleon concentrated his

army, while Wellington and Blucher, uncertain of the movements of the enemy, were obliged to canton their troops along a line of considerable country so as to be ready at whatever point he broke out. But when it was clear that he intended a practically straight march on Brussels, Blucher decided to concentrate at Ligny, while Wellington determined to face him at Quatre Bras. Meanwhile Napoleon had concentrated on Charleroi and was preparing to make an advance. He decided to lead one part of the army himself against Blucher, while he left Ney to deal with the forces under Wellington which were assembling at Quatre Bras. The fight with the Prussians was of the bloodiest nature, and at the close of the day they were obliged to fall back. Napoleon acclaimed this as a great victory in which the whole Prussian force was practically defeated, whereas in reality, though Blucher had suffered great losses, he had been able to lead his troops on to Havre and to reform them in a very short time. Meanwhile the battle on the left was progressing. Ney at the head of 18,000 men made the attack at 2 p.m. on the forces of Wellington which were gradually taking their positions, having marched quickly from Brussels the previous night. Those actually in position at the time of the assault consisted only of a Dutch and Belgian division of infantry, with one battalion of foot, and one of horsemen. Ney worked havoc on this company, and the infantry gave way early in the battle. But the British and German infantry now arrived and soon stemmed the tide of battle. The English Guards came up at 6 o'clock and enabled the Duke to recover the wood of Boussu, which had previously been occupied by the French. But the retreat of the Prussians, after their encounter with Napoleon, made it necessary for Wellington to move his army back, lest he should be taken on the left flank by the enemy. Wellington got into touch with Blucher and informed him he would halt at Mont St. Jean provided he would guarantee to send him a single corps of 25,000 men. On receiving a reply in the affirmative he retired over half the distance between Quatre Bras and Brussels, his retreat being covered by the cavalry under the Earl of Uxbridge. The day was rainy, and the roads were almost impassable.

The position chosen by Wellington was before the village of Mont St. Jean, about a mile and a half in front of the village of Waterloo. It was rising ground, having a gentle declivity before it, and beyond this was a plain about

a mile in breadth, and opposite were the heights of La Belle Alliance which it was expected Napoleon would occupy. With the Duke were about 75,000 men, of whom 30,000 were English. His first line consisted of British troops on whom he could rely, the second line behind was composed of troops whose discipline and courage were more doubtful. The roads were so arranged that it was easily possible for the troops behind to rush forward to the support of the others when needed. The chateau and gardens of Hougoment, the farm and enclosures of La Haye Sainte on the slope of the declivity, were strongly occupied and formed important outworks of defence. Had his position been forced the woods behind would have protected his retreat and given him time to re-establish his defence. Fortunately it was never required. Napoleon drew up his army on the morning of the 18th on the opposite heights. His army was rather stronger than Wellington's, especially in artillery and cavalry. But they were somewhat tired after their long march. When Napoleon saw the British army on the opposite heights he exclaimed, "At last, then, I have these English in my grasp." He was particularly glad to be able to make battle before the British were able to retreat to Brussels where help would have been forthcoming from the Russians and others. The tempest abated in the morning, and the French opened a cannonade about noon on the British position. In spite of the severe fire the position of Hougoment was held by the English Guards, formed in squares to meet the enemy's rushes. The second great effort was made against the centre of the British, but the horses were met in the path by the English heavy cavalry. There was a stern meeting, but the cuirassiers gave way and were followed by the English. They, however, followed too far, and before they returned they were severely cut up. The only result of this movement was the occupation of the farm-house of La Haye Sainte, but ere long they were forced to evacuate the place. The third assault was again on the British right, where they were awaited by solid squares of soldiers. The cuirassiers charged in vain against the impenetrable hedge of bayonets, while the fire from the inner ranks of the squares told with terrible effect on the enemy. In these fruitless attempts nearly the whole of Napoleon's heavy cavalry were destroyed. But Napoleon saw a new danger. He could see the army under Blucher approaching on his right. He had left General Grouchy to finish off the work he had begun the previous day, and he had

hoped the Prussian army was completely defeated. But it had been completely reorganised, and Blucher had left a single corps with Thielman, and had himself at the head of his remaining force marched to support Wellington. It was a trying journey, and only accomplished as the result of the brave Prussian General's courage and persistence. His arrival at this time made it clear to the French General that he must strike a conclusive blow so as to prevent the junction of the two armies. He now called up his Guards, his tried veterans, whom he had so far spared. They were told to take the position at all costs. Meanwhile the British who had suffered heavily held their ground, but were impatient to go forward. But the Duke knew what was best, and that a premature movement of a single corps down the British line of heights would have endangered the whole position. He inspired the rest with his own patient firmness. His personal danger was imminent, but he was always to be found where the danger was greatest. Napoleon now prepared for his great move. He stationed himself in such a place that the Guards would have to pass. As they marched past him they cheered the Emperor wildly, and then marched into the shadow of death. Though shot and shell ploughed through the ranks of these brave veterans, they still marched on against the foe and made charge after charge, but it was in vain, and soon their ranks were broken. Though his horse was shot from under him the French General Ney led his troops on foot. The British were lying on the ground awaiting the charge, and at the word of Wellington "Up, Guards, and at them," they dashed forward and soon decimated the French force. A second column attacked but it met with the same fate. The Duke now determined on a bold move, and gave the order for the whole line to advance so as to prevent the broken forces reforming. The men sprang joyously forward, poured down the valley and on to the heights of the enemy, carrying all before them. The day was won and the great Emperor's power was for ever broken. Seeing the battle was lost he exclaimed, "They are mingled together, all is lost for the present," and rode off the field never stopping for

a moment till he reached Charleroi. Just as the English launched their last charge, the forces of Blucher came on the scene and formed on the right of the French. Their cannonade poured on the flank of the Old Guard while the British attacked from the front. The French were now flying pell-mell in confusion, each seeking to save his own life. The generals could do nothing, and they were forced to make their way as best they could in the direction of their former base. But what a scene of confusion! The Prussians had eagerly accepted the suggestion they should follow the enemy, while the English rested after their heavy day, and no power could stop their headlong flight. Both sides had fought splendidly, but the steady bravery and courage of the British troops had won the day. Napoleon was out-generalled. Some French writers have been inclined to belittle the generalship of Wellington, but no general without genius could have met successfully such forces as were brought against him. He had chosen his position well, he had defended it with skill, he had inspired his men with his patient courage, he had chosen the right moment for the fatal charge. It was a definite victory, begun in one day and ended in one day. It was a momentous victory, for it closed the long period of turmoil and bloodshed that had preceded, brought in a new era of peace and security for the crowns and the people. The French felt very greatly the new disgrace and hastened to mark their disapproval of the man they had once worshipped. Napoleon abandoned his throne, proceeded to Rochefort with the hope of escaping to America, but was forced ultimately to surrender himself on board the English Man-of-War, the *Bellerophon*. The Allied armies marched on Paris, an armistice was granted, and the capitulation of Paris followed. The end of the great general is known to all. He was banished to the Isle of St. Helena where he died. The centenary of this great victory coinciding with the present conflict being fought on the same soil, will increase the determination of the Allies to overthrow the new despot who, too, has sought to found a world kingdom and to over-ride all other nationalities.

The War and Indian Finance.

BY ROBERT W. BROCK.

THESE are important times in relation to Indian finance, currency, and banking. In regard to finance, we are probably in for a series of lean years; this year and next year for certain. There will be no large Imperial surpluses to play with, and possibly—though not probably—additional taxation will become necessary, in which case, no doubt, a certain amount of hardship will be involved. Our currency system is still under discussion, and valuable experience in relation thereto is being gained from the industrial and financial upheaval caused by the war. Rarely have severer tests been applied to any currency system than those which are now being applied to the currency system of India; and it is gratifying to be able to record that, so far, the present arrangements have worked with results satisfactory to all concerned. It has also been a testing time for the banks; and it is satisfactory to know that these, too, have come through with reputations unshorn and stability unshaken. No State Bank could have rendered greater service to Indian trade at this juncture than has been rendered by the Indian Presidency and Exchange Banks; on the contrary, it is probable that, had a State Bank been in existence, and had it relied to any extent on Government funds for its resources, as was suggested, it would have been forced to curtail its normal accommodation to an extent that might have involved Indian trade in serious difficulties.

It is interesting, in the light of recent events, to recall the reasons which impelled Mr. Webb to urge that the bulk of the Gold Standard Reserve should be held in India:—

My reasons for advocating that the bulk of the Gold Reserve be held in gold, in India (he wrote) are these: Great Britain's gold reserves have been for some years notoriously slender almost to the verge of danger. Practically every man of business, banker, Chamber of Commerce, journalist, economist, politician, and statesman of knowledge and repute has been long agreed on this point. In these circumstances the placing of £15/20 millions of India's Gold Reserve in London is a gratuitous "tempting of Providence." Quite apart from the inconvenience that would be caused to London by a sudden withdrawal of this £15/20 millions owing to economic or political complications in India, there are two sets of complications conceivable in England that

would make it an impossibility for India to withdraw her Gold Reserve from London, no matter how badly India might require it; and those are (a) a panic in England arising out of an economic crisis, and (b) a financial crisis arising out of Great Britain being involved in war with a first-class Power. In either of these circumstances the sale of India's £17,000,000 worth of Gold Standard securities would be an impossibility. Even were the whole sum earmarked in gold at the Bank of England, there is no doubt that at a moment of grave national danger, Government would at once appropriate India's gold in London, and India would be left in the lurch for the time being. Were the sterling value of the rupee to collapse at such a moment, the difficulty of an already critical situation would be greatly accentuated.

Which being so, I urge that it is far better, both in India and in England's interests, to retain the bulk of the Gold Standard Reserve in gold in India. The existence of a £20,000,000 reserve of gold in India (in addition to the £7,000,000 in securities at Home) would not only guarantee the exchange value of the rupee, but it would, in time of grave national peril, be a source of strength to the whole Empire ("Advance India." Pages 139-140).

Mr. Webb's prediction that the City of London would be guilty of petty larceny in relation to India's Gold Standard Reserve has not come true. There was an exciting period in which the fate of London as the world's financial centre was generally regarded as hanging in the balance, but it is now universally acknowledged that, through the genius of Mr. Lloyd George, whose financial methods Mr. Webb has always condemned, not only has London maintained but it has very considerably strengthened its hold on the world of finance, and it is also admitted that it has fulfilled its obligations to the letter. It is very necessary to emphasise this fact, for, unfortunately, while defects in British supervision of Indian finance have been widely advertised and magnified, its benefits have been made less prominent. The trend of recent criticism has been in favour of the retaining of Indian funds in India, greater decentralisation of control, etc.; the war has brought into renewed prominence the extent to which India's financial dependence on London is, for the time being, necessary and beneficial. As regards the Gold Standard Funds, the chief need for them has been in London, in order to meet the demand that arose for export of gold from India. It is true that, had the gold

been in India, it could have been shipped; but this would have involved delay at a time when delay would have been fatal. Being in London, however, the Gold Standard Reserve Funds were available immediately the crisis arose; confidence was imparted by this knowledge and at this moment it is not too much to say that Indian credit stands as high in London as that of any country in the world. There has been no moment at which the steadiness of Indian exchange has been regarded with uncertainty; Government had decided on its course of action beforehand, and the arrangements worked as smoothly as could be desired. Not only has no raid been made by the City on India's Gold Standard Reserve, as Mr. Webb patriotically suggested would be the case; but since the outbreak of the war, loans have been raised in London on India's behalf. London, it may be pointed out to Mr. Webb, still stands firm as the world's greatest financial centre; it also still stands for honest dealing. It has been extremely easy to ascribe dishonesty and inefficiency to the India Office; but it probably will not now be found so easy to sustain these ill-considered charges.

If external agencies have worked favourably, the course of financial events in India itself has been at least equally satisfactory. "If the sterling value of the rupee were to collapse?" Mr. Webb soliloquized; but the sterling value of the rupee has not collapsed, and it has not collapsed on account of the very arrangements which Mr. Webb condemned. The experience of these last few months establishes the fact that, so long as the sterling value of the rupee is maintained unimpaired, its internal position is not open to attack. There has been no rush for gold; the only gold drawn from the currency offices when the crisis arose was taken for speculation; one of the sights of the opening days of the war at Calcutta was the crowd of Marwaries clubbing together outside the currency office to buy sovereigns for retail sale to people of defective intelligence at Rs. 18 to the sovereign. Though there is influential support for the view that gold in circulation diminishes Government's responsibilities in relation to the maintenance of exchange, I have not seen any recent evidence to support this contention. It may be conceded that possibly the demand on the Government reserves would have been larger had there been less gold in circulation; but so long as the sterling value of the rupee remains unshaken, the demand for gold has no particular justification. It can be

stated with certainty that no gold has come forward from circulation to help in maintaining exchange by export; and it follows, as night follows the day, that the only gold available for the direct maintenance of exchange has been the gold in the Government reserves. In Bengal, and in the other large portions of India where gold is very rarely seen in the ordinary circulating currency, the chief need has been recognised to be the conservation of gold for export. It is difficult to see what advantage would be gained, in these circumstances, by replacing the rupee by the sovereign. Had it been made clear that, in a crisis, the value of the rupee tended to fluctuate, undoubtedly a case would have been made out for its deposition, but there has been no fluctuation. Internally and externally, the silver currency of India stands firm; gold has proved useful as its handmaid, but would not necessarily exert so beneficent an influence as its mistress.

It has to be acknowledged that, for political and financial reasons, British capital has not come to India in recent years in as large volume, for industrial purposes, as could have been desired. While the political future of India has been viewed by the "City" with distrust, its currency system has not always inspired confidence, and misrepresentation and exaggeration have tended to aggravate the doubts felt on these scores. It is not likely that the political argument will exert such a potent effect in future years in view of the recent demonstration of the firmness of India's adhesion to the British connection, and the old financial indictment must, in view of current events, be expected to prove equally ineffective. There is, from the commercial standpoint, no more mischievous critic than he who talks glibly and continuously of "Indian unrest"; his only rival being the man who spares no effort to prove that the Indian currency system is rotten to the core.

¹ A word in conclusion regarding banking. A good deal of importance has to be attached to the recent offer of Government to give loans to the Presidency Banks from the Paper Currency Reserve at two per cent. under Bank rate; yet, though its significance deserved to be fully explained, in most newspapers this important development has been allowed to pass entirely without comment. It is a scheme which has been advocated for many years by bankers, and its result will probably be to reduce the average maximum bank rate of the Presidency Banks from 8 per cent. to 6. As explained by the Chamberlain Commission,

the securities now held in the Paper Currency Reserve amount to a little over 20 per cent. of the Reserve. In spite of an addition of two crores to the securities in 1911, this is a much lower percentage than was usual in earlier years, the figures at the end of each year in which the successive additions to the securities have been made being:—1871-72, 44.9 per cent.; 1890-91, 27.2 per cent.; 1896-97, 42.1 per cent.; 1905-06, 26.9 per cent.; 1911-12, 22.8 per cent. The Commission, amongst other proposals, recommended that Government should have power not only to make such further permanent investments as they think fit, but also to make temporary investments or to grant loans either in London or in India. In India, such loans were to be made to the Presidency Banks, while in London, the Commission recommended, the Secretary of State should have power to lend out in the London market sums received in payment for Council drafts sold out against the Currency Reserve in the busy season so long as the total of the cash portion of the Reserve does not fall below two-thirds of the net circulation.

We cannot do better than quote the advantages which the Commission hoped for as the result of the above changes and which, it is to be presumed, will shortly be realised:—

(1) While the permanent addition to the invested portion of the Reserve will be no more than is justified by past practice and experience without in any way endangering the complete convertibility of the notes, the revenues of India will secure the profit earned by investing the amount now held idle in the form of gold in India.

(2) There will be occasions, especially in the busy season, when it will be safe to lend temporarily sums which it would be unwise to invest permanently. The power to make such loans will, therefore, enable the Government to earn interest on sums, which would otherwise lie idle needlessly, and will provide at the same

time a much-needed facility for a temporary expansion of the currency in the busy season, by virtue of which the market may obtain some relief, though not at first, perhaps, a very great amount, from its recurrent stringency.

(3) The power to make temporary investments in London on account of the Paper Currency Reserve will be a convenience to the Secretary of State in permitting him to sell Council drafts against the Paper Currency Reserve, in anticipation of silver purchases or of any other cause, without the loss of interest or other disadvantages, which might sometimes come about if he were compelled, without discretionary power, to utilise the entire proceeds of such sales as earmarking gold.

(4) As the circulation of notes in India increases, it will be within the power of the authorities to increase as and when desirable either the permanent or the temporary investments or both without a special Act.

(5) The power to make loans from the cash held against notes in the Reserve Treasuries will provide the Government with a useful alternative or supplementary means of counteracting some of the disadvantages arising from the existing Reserve Treasury System.

Thus the war has already produced important results in relation to the Indian currency and banking systems. It has re-established the credit of British control in relation to Indian finance and currency; it has demonstrated how sound was the Royal Commission's endorsement of the currency system, which Bombay and Karachi did their utmost to slander; it has also instigated changes in the attitude of Government to the Presidency Banks, which will assist the financing of trade by making money cheaper and more plentiful. If the sequel is a period of freedom from currency controversies, there will probably be few to regret this. The conclusions of the Royal Commission have already been justified by the infallible test of practical experience; and it is not, therefore, likely that controversy will result in any material change in the lines of development which the Commission has laid down.

Gokhale's Speeches and Writings.

IN accordance with the permission given by the Hon. Mr. Gokhale a few weeks before his death Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., Publishers, Madras, will issue shortly an authorised and up-to-date edition of his speeches and writings. Every attempt will be made to make the collection comprehensive and exhaustive. The book which will contain several portraits of Mr. Gokhale will be in crown octavo size, printed on feather weight paper and priced at Rupees Three per copy. Subscribers of the *Indian Review* can have it at Rs. 2-8.

The volume will include the full text of all his Budget Speeches in the Viceroy's Council and a Selection of other important speeches before the same. (2) Selections from those delivered in the Bombay Legislative Council. (3) Selections from his speeches delivered before various sittings of the Indian National Congress, including the full text of his Presidential Address at the Benares Congress. (4) Selections from the speeches delivered in England during his trips. (5) His appreciations of Ranade, W. C. Bonnerji, Dadabhai, Sir P. M. Mehta, and others. (6) A few select papers from the Journal of the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha. (7) His parting speech at the Fergusson College, etc., etc. Every attempt will be made to make the collection as exhaustive and comprehensive as possible. The book will contain a lengthy account of his life and several portraits of him and of his Guru, the late Mahadev Govinda Ranade, and several others. Price Rs. Three. To Subscribers of the *Indian Review*, Rs. 2-8.

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SIR CHARLES WILKINS

BY

MR. SHUMBU CHUNDER DEY.

PRINTING is a very useful art, and has done yeoman's service to the cause of learning by affording facilities for disseminating it. It has by widening the sphere of knowledge increased the numbers of its votaries and given something like religious importance to its worship. In days of yore, education was confined to a favoured few, but since the introduction of the art of printing it has extended to the masses who were sunk in the depth of ignorance. This being the real state of things, it is no wonder that William Caxton, who at the close of the fifteenth century first introduced printing in England, is regarded as one of its greatest benefactors. Caxton, however, was not the framer of the art: that honour is due to Gutenberg who invented it at Metz about the middle of the same century. Having learnt the art in the low countries, where he remained for some years in the service of Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, a sister of Edward the VI. of England, Caxton came over again to England probably in 1475, where the first book printed by him was the *Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*. His Press was set up in the Almonsy near Westminster Abbey; it is clear, therefore, that the Church regarded his proceedings with approval and was disposed to favour them by substantial aid.

What Caxton was in England, the subject of this short Memoir is in Bengal, or, for the matter of that, in all India. Wilkins was the first to introduce printing, which in the form in which it was introduced by him was almost a thing unknown in this country. Having learnt the current dialects of Hindusthan, he invented and cast types in the characters thereof and commenced work in right earnest. He established a Press in Hooghly, and employed native agencies to do the composing and printing, himself superintending the business with his usual care and attention. In this way he rose in public esteem and gained name and fame, which have avoided the almost sweeping havoc of the great destroyer, Time.

But not only is our hero held in high regard for having introduced the art of printing, he is

also greatly esteemed for his having for the first time opened the mines of Sanskrit-lore to the eyes of Europeans. This sacred language of the Hindus was a sealed secret to Westerners, and it was Wilkins who broke the seal and laid bare the contents to the wondering gaze of foreigners from the Far West. True it is that John Marshall, a factor at Kasimbazar, had before him studied Sanskrit in this country, but his labours of love had a very narrow compass and were not much known and appreciated. Except a few manuscripts which are huddled up in a corner of the British Museum in London, nothing remains to keep alive his memory in men's minds. The case of Wilkins is quite different. He laboured hard and incessantly in the matter and achieved considerable success in it. Indeed, the credit of being the first Sanskrit scholar among Europeans is pre-eminently due to him. Even after returning from India he did not flag in his efforts, but went on with redoubled energy in furtherance of Sanskrit learning till the rude hand of death pushed him out of this world.

A sketch of such an important personality, however imperfect, cannot fail to be interesting, not only to European Orientalists who owe him an immense debt of gratitude, but also to the general reading public who take interest in the advancement and spread of knowledge.

Charles Wilkins was not a Londoner like his famous contemporary, Sir William Jones; he hailed from Somersetshire, where at Frome he was born about the year 1750. He was the son of Walter Wilkins of that town and his wife Martha Wray, niece of Robert Bateman Wray, the well-known engraver. Very little is known of his early life. His parents were probably all but poor, and their boy grew up amidst humble environments. Young Wilkins was not much taken care of; he was almost left to shift for himself. If he received any education at all, it was very scant and certainly did not hold out any promise of the big eminence to which he afterwards attained. Finding that his prospect at home was all but gloomy, he cast his longing eyes towards the Far East, and having somehow

secured a 'writership' in the service of the East India Company, came out to India when he had just passed out of his teens. After his arrival he stayed for a few months at Calcutta, whence he was sent to Majda as an Assistant to the Superintendent of the Company's Factory there. But factory business did not engross his attention: In his leisure hours he commenced to learn Persian and Bengali, the two dialects there in common use, and without a knowledge of which no foreigner could hope "to get on" well. It would seem that Wilkins possessed a remarkable aptitude for learning languages, and it was not long before he acquired a fair mastery over those two popular languages. This proficiency gave an impetus to his capable mind, and he took to learning Sanskrit, the most ancient as well as the most difficult of languages that are in vogue in the world. It so happened that at this time his friend, Nathaniel Brassey Halbed, was also learning that language, and it is only natural that he should follow his friend's example in this respect. As he himself writes: "About 1778, curiosity was excited by the example of my friend, Mr. Halbed, to commence the study of the Sanskrit." He, too, began to study it, and as he brought his usual zeal and assiduity into requisition, acquired a fair knowledge of it in a comparatively short time.

Having thus gained something like a mastery over the languages in use, Wilkins directed his attention towards the dissemination of knowledge. The same, he thought, he could not do better than by introducing the art of printing in India. This all-important undertaking which has made his name almost a household word in this foreign land, he took up in right earnest. He invented and cast types in Persian and Bengali characters, the first few of which he prepared with his own hands. Here he was not only an organiser but also (in the words of Halbed) 'metallurgist, engraver, founder and printer' of types of alphabets so elaborate and distinct from one another as Bengali and Persian. In passing, it is worthy of notice that the Governor-General, Warren-Hastings, had at first asked Mr. Bolts, the author of the *Consultations*, to do the thing, but though an expert, the latter could not execute even the primary alphabets; whereupon Wilkins was called in, and as he gave his heart and soul to the work, it was done so well and admirably as to have left very little to be desired. In fact, his method had since been followed without any attempt at innovation or improvement. This shows that

Wilkins was a thorough master of the art which he introduced in this country, and the cognomen of "the Caxton of Bengal" would not be inappropriate in his case.

As Hooghly on the Bhagirathi was then a place of great importance and drove a brisk trade, Wilkins established his printing press in that historic town. As this was the only press in the land, for the three well-known Baptist Missionaries, Carey, Marshman and Ward, who set up a press at Serampore had not then come out to Bengal—it did all but a roaring business and issued out in rapid succession many useful and interesting publications. Like Wilkins, his friend Halbed had also learned among a few other languages Bengali! Indeed, his knowledge of this tongue was far above the average, so much so that he was in a position to write a grammar on it. This was no ordinary feat, more especially for a foreigner, as his was the first attempt in that direction. It was only natural that this altogether new work should be printed in the press established by Wilkins at Hooghly. In fact, the author had but Hobson's choice in the matter, he having had no other alternative. With the Bengali types cut and cast by Wilkins, Halbed's *Bengali Grammar** was printed; and with his Persian types, Balfour's *forus of Hercurn* was printed. This latter work was nothing but a collection of letters in Persian intended to serve as models for correspondence. Similarly, all the Laws and Regulations of the East India Company which were translated by Edmonstone and others continued to be printed with his Persian types.

In September 1783, Sir William Jones, an honored name in the republic of letters, arrived in Bengal and joined the Supreme Court at Calcutta as one of its Puisne Judges. His reputation had preceded him, and his coming to this country was hailed with general satisfaction. His first act in the direction of the cultivation and propagation of Oriental learning in Bengal—an act which has secured for him a glorious immortality—was the establishment of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, an institution of researches planned and

* In the title-page, the author states that the book was written for the purpose of teaching Grammar to the Feringhees, meaning thereby Europeans in general. And the necessity for this knowledge he founds upon the well-known political view that, to smooth the feelings and to gain popularity the conquerors should understand the language of the conquered, as the ancient Romans had done in the case of the *Celtæ*.

formed on the lines of the Royal Society of London. The new Association met for the first time in 1784 under the presidency of its noble founder. In this laudable enterprise, Sir William was aided and supported among a few others by Charles Wilkins. In fact, the latter who had the good of this country at heart was always to the fore to do all for it that lay in his power.

The next work which engaged the attention and employed the labour of Wilkins was an English translation of that masterpiece of Hindu philosophy, in which are harmoniously combined the sweetness and elegance of poesy with the stiffness and severity of philosophy. Need I say that I refer to that Canticle of Canticles, the *Bhagvat Gita*, a didactic poem of a very high order. It contains, as F. Schlegel* says, the modern system of Indian thought connected by a common origin with the doctrines of the religious sect formed in India by the Greeks and called by them Samanians in contradistinction to the Brachmans. It is an episode of the grand Sanskrit poem the *Mahabharata*: but though part of an Epic, it is philosophical throughout. It is done up in the form of Dialogues between Sree Krishna and Arjuna, and contains a fair and faithful exposition of some of the most difficult problems of Hindu Philosophy and Theology. It may almost be styled, says the eminent German scholar whom we have quoted above, a manual of Indian Mysticism; it is in great repute and the best exponent of the actual Indian mind. There is a remarkable peculiarity about this Book of Books, as regards the unmeasured praise bestowed on leading Deities, either not found at all in Manu's Institutes, or almost passed over without comment, while the old doctrines, the Vedas, and Polytheism generally are roughly handled. The essential creed expounded is that of an absolute divine unity absorbing all distinctions and engulfing all things. Yet in so far as it is connected with mythology, it may be termed poetic pantheism, not unlike the Neo-Platonic philosophy, which, it will be remembered, combined under somewhat similar circumstances with the then popular belief, in its last throes, expecting by these means to revive its drooping energies. This pantheism, according to the Vedanta doctrine, pervading the whole of Indian literature since the time of Vyasa, is satisfactorily epitomised in the *Bhagvat Gita*, and is abundantly known to us,

inasmuch as all classical Hindu Works in every branch of literature are more or less composed, or at any rate remodelled in the spirit of this doctrine. The worship of Vishnu and Krishna, now universally prevalent in Hindusthan, differs only in one particular—that of retaining the division into castes—from the religion of Buddha and which was transplanted from India to Tibet and China in the first century of Christianity, and disseminated throughout Central and Northern Asia.

Such being the character and importance of the *Bhagvat Gita*, it is not at all surprising that its English rendering, executed as it was so very admirably by Wilkins, attracted the attention of that liberal patron of Oriental learning, the great Indian Satrap, Warren Hastings of laudable memory. In fact, His Excellency was so highly pleased with it that he sent up the work with his strong recommendation to the Honourable Directors of the East India Company to be published in England. The Directors, too, in accordance with his recommendation published in London the translation in 1785. But not only did it receive favour in England, it also moved the minds of the great in some other countries of Europe, and the result was that it was re-translated in rapid succession into French, Russian and German. Thus, this jewel of Hindu literature and learning became known and appreciated all over the Far West. Not only did Wilkins distinguish himself by his translation of the *Bhagvat Gita*, he also deciphered some ancient inscriptions on copper plates and stone pillars which had hitherto baffled the attempts of sages and savants at explaining and translating them. This he did in connection with his labours in the field of Oriental researches. The first inscription brought to the notice of the Asiatic Society of Bengal was a copper-plate grant of Vignahapala, the fifth king of the Pala dynasty. It had been discovered amidst some ruins at Mongyr, the Mudgagiri of the Sanskrit writers, and was translated by Mr. Charles Wilkins in 1781 three years before the foundation of the Society. The translation was published in the first volume of the Asiatic Researches, the organ of the Society, but without any facsimile or transcript of the original. The original is lost, and so many doubtful points in it cannot now be solved. It opens with the name of Gopala, the first of the Pala dynasty. He was a pious king who acted according to what is written in the Shastras and obliged the different sects to conform to their proper tenets. His

* See his *History of Literature*, translation, pp. 122, 123 (Bohn's Library), 1877.

religion is not distinctly mentioned, but he was evidently a Buddhist, as almost all the other Pala kings were, for the documents begin with a comparison between him and Sugata Buddha. But though a Buddhist by faith, he was the very reverse of a bigot, and was perfectly tolerant in respect of the religions of his subject-people. The grant also makes some mention of the successors of Gopala. From the conclusion it would appear that the document was executed in the seventeenth year of the reigning sovereign, on the 9th day of Baisakh, when the royal grantor lay encamped near Mudgagiri, modern Mongyr, and that by it the village of Mukatika was presented for the support of Siva-Bhattaraka and his followers. The record was composed by Bhatta-guraka, the minister, who erected the Budal pillar, which we shall presently notice.

Soon after the discovery of the Mongyr copper-plate, another monument of the Pala dynasty was found at Budal in Dinagpur.

This inscription, too, was translated by Wilkins. It was a record inscribed on a stone pillar set up by the minister referred to above. As in the case of the Mongyr inscription, so in this the translation was published in the "Asiatic Researches" without any text. The inscription records the merits of the founder's ancestors who seem to have been all officers of the Pala family. Trusting to the wisdom of one of them, the chronicler states: "The king of Gaur for a long time enjoyed the country of the eradicated race of Utkala, of the Huras of humbled pride, of the kings of Dravida and Gurjara whose glory was reduced, and the universal sea-girt throne."

After having thus laboured hard and incessantly in the field of Oriental learning, Wilkins found to his deep regret that his health, which was unusually strong, had been considerably shaken, and he, therefore, longed for the bracing air of his native Albion. He accordingly bade a long adieu to the land of his adoption in 1786, and sailed for the land which had given him birth. On his arrival in "Merry England," he took up his quarters at Bath, so well known for its pure wholesome air and waters. Here, however, he did not live an idle invalid life, but occupied himself with translations from the Sanskrit, the language which of all others he loved so much and in which he had acquired a wonderful proficiency for a foreigner. At Hawkhurst he began the formation of a fount of Nagri types for printing Sanskrit. In 1787, at Bath, he translated with explanatory notes from an ancient

Sanskrit manuscript: *The Hitopadesa* of Vishnu Sarma, who is facetiously called Pilpay.*

This excellent book of 'proverbial philosophy' contains some admirable fables in easy prose, but the prose is interspersed with difficult metrical precepts, and it is these illustrative quotations which often prove to be the rocks on which dull students suffer shipwreck, so very hard are they of comprehension to ordinary minds. This fable-book may well be styled the *Nitishastra* of the Hindus, and is the source of so many other collections of fables. The author occupied almost the same position in Hindu literature as *Aesop* does in Greek, and *Lokman* in Persian. Clearness of narrative is a distinguishing feature of the book; a selection of beautiful passages from old poems and maxims of wisdom are harmoniously combined. The narrative, indeed, mainly subserves to string the aphorisms and wise sentences together as a poetic garland intended to arouse reflection as well as to exercise the memory of youths. The book is deservedly very popular and has been translated into many a language. In fact, with the exception of the holy Bible, there is hardly any book in the world which has been translated into so many languages as this fable-book of the Hindus. It is not known for certain when the *Hitopadesa* was first composed, but there is no doubt that it is an old work and has been in existence for many centuries together.

In this way Wilkins gained great celebrity as a Sanskrit scholar, and his learned labours in the field of Oriental learning attracted the notice of the powers that be, so that when a Library was founded in connection with the India House in the initial year of the nineteenth century, Wilkins was appointed its first Librarian on a salary or rather stipend of £1,000 a year, an office then established mainly for the custody of Oriental manuscripts taken at Seringapatam and elsewhere. The Library proved very useful to the servants of the East India Company, as it afforded them opportunities for learning almost all matters connected with India. Many of the Company's people

* This is certainly a queer name, but its origin is not difficult to trace. In 1709 "*Kutilduma*," a Persian work, was translated into French under the title of "*Les-conseils-et-les-Maxims-de-pilpay-Philosophe-Indien sur-les divers- Etats-de la vie*." This translation was the direct source from which the English "*Instructive and Entertaining Fables of Pilpay on ancient Indian Philosophy*," was written, and the latter book at once became so very popular that it passed through five editions in one single year, 1775. In this way the Indian Philosopher and Moralist, Visnu Sarma, came to be called almost in derision, Pilpay.

helped this Institution materially, amongst whom the name of Mr. Henry Thomas Colebrooke, so well known as a Sanskritist, deserves to be prominently mentioned, he having presented to it his very valuable collection of Sanskrit manuscripts numbering about two thousand.

As ancillary to the office of Librarian, Wilkins was on the establishment of Haileybury College, in 1805, appointed Oriental Visitor at that College, whose duty was to co-operate with the Professors and to personally conduct the *viva voce* portion of the examinations. Like the Librarianship this office, too, he held till his death which took place in London more than three decades after.

Wilkins was succeeded in the visitorship by that distinguished Oriental scholar, Mr. Horace Hayman Wilson, then occupying the Boden Chair of Sanskrit at Oxford. In those days the Boden Professor was only required to reside three weeks in every town at Oxford, and was allowed to hold simultaneously the office of Librarian at the India House and of Oriental Visitor at Haileybury. Professor Wilson held the office of Oriental Visitor till 1857, when old Haileybury was abolished.

One peculiar feature of the Haileybury College was that Sanskrit formed a part of its curriculum; Indeed, this venerable parent of world's languages was made compulsory so that no student could do without it. Thus, a good Sanskrit grammar was felt as a desideratum; but this want did not remain a want long. In 1808, Wilkins produced a *grammar of the Sanskrit language*; but as it was the first attempt of its kind, it is not to be wondered at that it contained good many errors. But all the same it materially aided the learners in their first attempt at acquiring a knowledge of Sanskrit. The author, so far from bragging of his production, says at the very outset that it was not likely to be free from errors, and he accordingly invites or rather exhorts sages and savants to point them out in order that he might correct them in a future edition.

In the Introduction, Wilkins rightly observed that scholars in every branch of knowledge would find a fruitful field in the literature of the Hindus. The Sanskrit-lore bristles with original treatises on Astronomy, Mathematics, Philosophy, Metaphysics, Poetry, Music, Medicine, Ethics, Politics, Grammar and whatnot. He notices in particular the Puranas, poems of mythological terrors, as a collection of charming allegories and fables and interesting stories of old which induced men

"towards the "paths of Religion, Honour and Virtue." As I have already observed, Wilkins was the first to try his hand at Sanskrit Grammar; but owing to his dwelling-house with all its goods and effects having been burnt and destroyed by fire, he could not bring out his work as early as he had expected, so that as a matter of fact Colebrooke's work on the same subject appeared first. But not only did Wilkins help Haileybury students by writing a Sanskrit Grammar for their use, he also did them some good service by superintending through the Press a new edition of Richardson's "Dictionary of the Persian, Arabic and English languages," and looked over each sheet of the book before it was finally printed off. He revised and enlarged the work by more than twenty thousand pure Persian words drawn from original Dictionaries. The work received second revision in 1829 at the hands of Mr. Francis Johnson,* who was Professor of Sanskrit, Bengali and Telugu at the Haileybury College, and who was succeeded in that Chair by Professor Monier Williams so well-known to fame in 1844.

The inscription on the Sanskrit gold medals awarded to successful students at Haileybury College was attributed to his authorship. The words round the margin were: *Atmabuddhi-Prasada-jan-tat sukham sat-tvikam-praktam.*"—"That pleasure which is derived from the favour (or cultivation?) of one's own intellect is called true,"—an apothegm (based on a phrase in the *Bhagavat Gita*) which, from its being difficult to translate, had the merit of appearing to be pregnant with some occult meaning. In the centre of the medal were the words,—*Sri-Vidya-varah*—the exact meaning of which, too, was obscure.†

* Speaking of this well-known Professor, Sir Monier Williams, after stating that like his namesake the great lexicographer, he was author of a Persian and Arabic Dictionary, goes on to say: "He had never been at a university, had taken no degree anywhere and could write no letters of any kind after his name, but he was one of the best, kindest and most single-minded and simple-hearted of men, endowed with a marvellous power of acquiring languages, an infinite capacity for work, a vice-like tenacity of memory and indomitable industry. Unhappily he was at the same time so humble and so distressingly diffident and shy that he was wholly incapacitated for maintaining order in a class-room . . . Speaking for myself I may say that it is impossible for me to exaggerate my debt of gratitude to him for the effectual help which he cheerfully gave me in my efforts to acquire at least five Oriental languages, Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Bengali and Telugu." (See "Memorials of old Haileybury College," pp. 71, 72.)

† See "Memorials of old Haileybury College, p. 208.

Wilkins also compiled in 1796 a catalogue of Sir William Jones' manuscripts.

In the memorable Waterloo year, Wilkins published for use at the Company's College a list of the roots of the Sanskrit language—*Sri-Dhatu-Manjari*—"the Radicals of the Sanskrit language." This vocabulary was compiled from original manuscripts, of which the principal was the *Dhatu-Manjari* of Kasinath. Where this work was found to be defective, other texts were consulted, more specially the *Kavi Kalpadurma* of Vopadeva, whose grammar called *Muklhubodha* is quite a favourite with the Bengal Pandits. In fact, no foreigner of that time did so much for Sanskrit learning as Wilkins did. Although Jones, Colebrooke and Wilson subsequently won brighter laurels, it was Wilkins who paved the way and showed them how best to achieve such splendid successes. Sir William Jones was candid enough to say that but for Wilkins' aid he would never have learned Sanskrit. The fame of Wilkins was not confined within the narrow limits of his own country, its fragrance had spread very far indeed. All Europe rang with his praise, and European scholars were acquainted with his works as familiarly as Englishmen with those of their own worthies. He was made an *Associate of the Institute De France*. But greater honours were done him by the land where he has first seen the light of Heaven. Two years after his arrival in England, that is, in 1788, he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society; and on the 25th June, 1805, the University of Oxford conferred on him the honorary degree of D.C.L. Twenty years after, the Royal Society of Literature awarded him one of their Royal medals as *Princeps Riteratorum Sanscritæ*. Even His Majesty was not slow to do him the honour he so richly deserved. William IV., commonly known as the Sailor Prince, created him a Knight of the Guelphic Order in 1833. To say sooth, Wilkins' lot was enviable and marked him out as one of the favourites of Heaven. Health, competence, fame, the affection of family and friends—nothing was wanting to render him exceptionally happy; and to these causes may be attributed the advanced age of six and eighty which he had attained. Like David Hume, the famous historian and philosopher, he knew not what ailment was, and it is said that during the whole course of his long

life he had only one attack of influenza which gave him a deal of trouble, and probably led to his leaving India for good when he was only twenty-six or twenty-seven years of age. Sir Charles departed this world on the 15th May, 1836, and was interred at 'the Chapel in Portland town.' His portrait was painted later in life by J. C. Middleton, and a mezzotint by J. Sarton was engraved in 1880.


Wilkins was twice married and left three daughters, one of whom was married to the numismatist, William Marsden. This gentleman was also author of a *History of Sumatra*, and some other works. The father-in-law and the son-in-law were about the same age and died in the same year.

Sir Charles Wilkins occupies a very high place in the domain of Oriental learning. True it is, there have since appeared brighter names in it; but in point of priority none can approach him. He might be called the Morning Star of Oriental lore. Sanskrit was all but unknown to Europeans, and it was Wilkins who for the first time opened the rich inexhaustible mines of its untold treasures before their wondering eyes. He knew many Indian languages and had a thorough mastery over some of them. As for his knowledge of Sanskrit, it was simply wonderful at least for the time in which he flourished. He was justly esteemed (as may be seen in extant correspondence) by Sir William Jones, who, as he himself said, owed him "a debt immense of endless gratitude." In Indian Epigraphy he was specially the Pioneer, being the first European to study Sanskrit Inscriptions, which were unintelligible to the Pundits of his time. Of the five articles by him—in the earlier volumes of the "*Asiatic Researches*,"—four are on this subject, one of primary importance to the real history of Bengal which has to be written. But the act for which his memory is fondly cherished, and his name regarded with a respect almost bordering on affection, is his introduction of the art of printing in this country. By this noble act he has built for himself a temple in the Indian heart, where he receives daily worship in the shape of prayer and praise from thousands, and will, it is to be hoped, continue to receive it for times unnumbered and through ages without end.

INDIA'S INDUSTRIAL PROBLEM

BY

DEWAN BAHADUR K. KRISHNASWAMI RAO, C.I.E.

 F all the problems concerning the advancement of India, the industrial problem is the most important one and appears to be insolvable. Steam, electricity and mechanical appliances have so vastly revolutionized the old methods of working industries, that manual labour has not the least chance for indigenous industries of lifting their head. The introduction of the former is not only far more costly than the latter, but also demands scientific knowledge not now available in India. It is most deplorable that the scientific instruction imparted in Indian colleges has hitherto proved practically useless. A few technical institutions are found here and there in India, but they have yet to show that they are capable of giving efficient and practical training in any branch of industry. The annual industrial conferences numerously held in different parts of India have no doubt done good service in disclosing our industrial weakness and suggesting remedies; but they have not been able to introduce any change for the better in our industrial condition.

A number of our enterprising students who have returned to India after a practical course in foreign industrial institutions complain that their foreign instructors did not allow them to see or learn certain essential processes; and that for want of industrial establishments in India, in which they can use such technical knowledge as they possess, they are obliged to seek professions quite alien to special courses of studies they took in foreign countries at considerable expense and personal sacrifice. Indian capitalists, as a rule, have no sufficient motive to embark on industrial enterprises, whose success has not been well demonstrated and proved. They find for their money, comparatively safe and profitable investment, in loans and in the export of raw materials and import of foreign manufactures. Until the rates of interest go down to 4 or 5 per cent. per annum, no capitalist will turn his serious attention to the investment of his capital in industrial concerns. We may reasonably expect the Co-operative movement to effect a reduction in the rates of interest, if the Government and the Registrars of Co-operative Societies continue their whole-hearted support to the movement as have done in the past.

An intelligent and educated capitalist on being asked why he or his brother have not given their thought to the investment of their money in industries, he said that the chances of success were very remote in the present state of India. He gave the instance of a match factory in Bombay Presidency, which was not thriving, although the wood required for the factory were supplied by Government at a normal price. The reasons for this sad state of affairs are that the machinery and chemicals required are to be imported from foreign countries; that the freight, import duties and commissions exceed by far the little profit made in wood; that the mechanic and other skilled labourers are not available except upon prohibitory terms; and that the fact that there are raw materials at our command does not therefore go sufficiently long in the competitive race for improved methods of manufacture and for the cheap production of articles. There is also the further contingency of the foreign manufacturer (who is an expert) underselling his wares to drive out the Indian competitor from the field.

The formation and working of joint stock companies have become very difficult owing to the new Indian Companies Act, which has introduced higher rates of fees than those prescribed in the corresponding British Act and laid down restrictions quite unsuited to the present conditions of India.

The greatest war known to History, which is going on vigorously and whose end is not yet in prospect, has laid bare the utter helplessness of India and its complete dependence on foreign countries for many articles which have become necessities. It is nothing but adverse fate that with the abundance of raw material and cheap labour available in India, we should be at the mercy of other nations for some of our necessities. Is there no remedy? So far as one can judge from the present circumstances, the answer must be in the negative until and unless the Government completely change their free trade policy and heartily and liberally give their support to Indian enterprises, as Germany and Japan gave to their industries. The change of policy is not, however, within practical politics, as it would injure British interests in Indian trade.

The Court of the Nabob Serajuddaullah*

BY

MR. AKSHAY K. GHOSE, *Bar.-at-Law.*

THE Nabob was waiting for me. He had been informed that a Frenchman had come who could speak Persian. Before reaching the Durbar I had to pass through three very large courtyards which were covered with a large number of soldiers and vakts. Then I entered a very beautiful flower-bed adorned with two rows of trees and with platbands and having trenches dug in there for flowing of water. At the end there was a terrace at the foot of which I left my shoes and made the *sigdah* carrying my hand from the ground to my forehead. On this terrace was the Durbar, which was a great Divan quite open towards the flower garden with one of its sites overlooking the Ganges. The Divan appeared to me to be twenty-five to thirty feet square. Its ceiling was supported by several pillars covered with muslin and flower-works, with relief of tassels and stripes of gold and silver work. In the walls which were covered with white cement which was very bright, were to be seen a multitude of small niches which corresponded to each other symmetrically. The flooring was covered with mats overspread with a carpet of doubly and trebly folded muslin.

I found the Nabob lying in the midst of the Divan, his elbow resting on a brocade cushion. On his head there was a small cap resembling one skull cap. His coat was of muslin with flower-work, and his breeches were of gold work. His hand held an ivory stick ending in a silver head with which he scratched himself often. This prince appeared to me to be of the ordinary stature. He was dark with a very bright eye and his manner was very frank. He did not like the English who had insulted him in the reign of his grandfather. On his left were his brothers seated on the carpet with their legs crossed. I placed myself after Mons. Law, who was on the

right side of this prince, and beside me were Mir Madan, a Mogul Lord (5 ft. 8 in. in height, almost white and very regular features with a sword-cut on his cheek which gave him a martial appearance), Raja Daulat Ram and five or six other Rajas, who alone could supply as many as twenty thousand men. Behind us stood one interpreter and the officers of the palace guards and others forming a horseshoe and leaving the front of the Durbar open.

The audience passed in compliments and ridiculous questions put to us by the Nabob, who appeared to be more interested in our dress and ostrich feathers on our caps than in the object of our visit. Such is ordinarily the conduct of Asiatic princes in their Durbars with respect to strangers. It is by means of these ridiculous questions, slowness, and delays that they see through the character of their ambassadors, the real intention of the persons who send them, and they guess what is wanted from them and often rightly.

While we were with the Nabob the officers of the guard came to *salaam* him. This is a ceremony which is practised every morning and every evening. The chiefs advanced at the head of their company, stopped at the foot of the terrace and making the *sigdah* said: '*U'mar daraz daulat ziawidu bashud*, that is to say, 'May your life be long and may your power increase.' This done they marched out in a row and their place was taken by others who made the same salute.

We had hardly gone a few steps from the palace when we heard a terrible noise of timbals, trumpets mixed with shots of guns and muskets. The Nabob was going to the mint. His retinue consisted of about 4,000 men. He was in a palanquin followed by several elephants and more than 400 *masalchis* (torch-bearers) who with torches of several branches each lighted the way. According to custom we set foot on the ground and continued our journey.

* As described by Mons. Anquetil Du Perron who visited it about the 16th of March, 1756. Translated from the original French.

THE INDIAN UNREST & ITS REMEDY

BY BABU AMBICA CHARAN MUZUMDAR.

THE unrest in India has been the theme of earnest and persistent discussions during the past few years both here as well as in England. Whether it be the customary pronouncement of an administrator, or the official report of any branch of the administration; whether it be the criticism of a publicist, or the harrangue of the political agitator on the public platform, and whether it be a debate in Parliament, or the academic discussion in an Indian Legislative Council, nothing passes without, at least, a parting shot at the Indian unrest and without every one in his own way recommending his own specific for its treatment. The unrest is admitted; but while the bureaucracy would fain attribute it to a sudden restlessness among the people owing to an unwholesome development of certain extravagant ideas in their minds, the people with equal emphasis, though not with equal authority, would lay it at the door of that bureaucracy who unable to adapt themselves to the altered state of the country, have lost all sympathy for their legitimate wishes and aspirations and are evidently determined not to guide and control, but simply to curb and crush the rising spirit of a renovated people with old, antiquated methods of reaction and repression. It is, however, a patent circumstance that in a dependency governed like India the people have nothing to gain but everything to lose by unnecessarily irritating the authorities; while an autocratic rule, such as is firmly established in this country, has very little to care about and certainly nothing to fear from any sullen discontent of the people. It is a common saying among the people in this country, which even the meanest among them accepts as a rule of conduct in daily life, that even the lunatic understands his own interest; and agitation which always involves heavy sacrifice of time and energy cannot be a pastime with

an Oriental people nurtured upon a philosophy which represents this mundane world as a delusion and guided by religious faiths which preach only eternal peace and repose. *

It was Edmund Burke who speaking even of free countries said, that whenever there was a friction between a people and its Government it was invariably the case that the former was in the right and the latter in the wrong. It has always been conceded even by their worst critics that the Indians are by nature, as well as their religious instincts, an extremely docile and a tractable people and that whatever the other defects and blemishes of their character may be it is generally free from the taint of ingratitude. The Indians have always recognised the manifold blessings of the British rule, notably the security of life and property it has secured, the administration of justice it has established and the education it has fostered and extended throughout the country. As regards the development of the internal resources of the country and its economic condition there is no doubt considerable difference of opinion; but there is an absolute consensus of opinion as well as of feeling throughout the country, that but for the British rule it would have been impossible for the various races inhabiting this vast continent to have attained the peaceful progress it has attained in many directions within the last hundred and fifty years. Even the most unrelenting critic is forced to admit, that if India has paid a heavy price for that progress, her gain also has not been inconsiderable, and that *plus* and *minus* the balance of advantage is still on her side. On the other side it is hardly disputed that India was not, correctly speaking, conquered by the sword, but won by the willing allegiance of a people who were unable to govern themselves. If that is so, the question naturally arises, how is it that the Indians have, after a peaceful, beneficent rule of more than one and half a century, suddenly developed such a spirit of restlessness and discontent?

* From the writer's forthcoming book on "Indian National Evolution" to be published shortly by Messrs. G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.

Can it be Sedition—an earnest desire on the part of the people to overthrow the British Government and establish their absolute independence? If that were so, any attempt on the part of the people to shake off the British yoke would have proved as disastrous a failure as the maintenance of settled Government by Britain herself even for a year despite her naval and military strength. The cry of Sedition was as false as it was senseless and impolitic. There never was in these years a movement anywhere to subvert British rule in India, nor was there a single overt act lending colour to a possible tendency towards such a movement, besides some insane, meaningless, incoherent, inflammatory effusions contained in a few anonymous pamphlets or leaflets which some mischievous urchins might circulate for creating either a fun or a senseless sensation in the country. If a dastardly attempt on the life of Czar Nicholas, or the murder of King Humbert, or the assassination of President Carnot could not be construed into an attempt to overthrow the Russian Empire, or the Italian monarchy, or the French Republic, it seems difficult to conceive how the secret manufacture of some bombs in a private garden, the assassination of a few police officers, the secret murder of a Magistrate, or even the daring attempt on the life of an innocent Lieutenant-Governor at a public place, however atrocious these acts may be, can be regarded as any evidence of sedition or treason, or how any people outside an asylum could ever dream of driving away the British from India with the help of some bundles of bamboo sticks, a few ounces of picric acid, a few packets of gunpowder, or even of a few dozens of old, rusty smuggled revolvers. The idea is simply quixotic. To whatever lengths human ingenuity may go to strain and stretch the definition of sedition or high treason, common sense must always refuse to believe that a handful of misguided young men, with no other instruments than these in their possession, could really have thought of "waging war against the King." However seriously the situation may have been taken by a bureaucracy placed in a distant foreign land, even the most ardent loyalist in the

country regarded the panic as quite mistaken and exaggerated beyond all proportion.*

The Indian bureaucracy, particularly the section of it belonging to the Indian Civil Service, may be disposed to regard every member of it as a limb of the Sovereign authority and as such misconstrue every serious offence against any such member to be tantamount to an offence against *lèse majesté*, i.e., high-treason. But the Eastern mind draws a sharp distinction between the Crown and its servants, and between an impersonal Government and its personal officers, how highsoever they may be. The expression "Representative of Government" is loosely extended, even sometimes in official documents, to officers whom the people regard as no more than "public servants." A good deal of the misunderstanding seems to be due to an oversight of this distinction on the part of a governing class, every member of which carries in him the natural pride of being a ruler of the country. The late Mr. Kristodas Pal most forcibly and faithfully drew out this distinction prevailing in the Indian mind in his celebrated controversy with the Government of Sir George Campbell who was not inaptly called the Tiberius of the Indian Civil Service. Having been charged, as Editor of the *Hindu Patriot*, with 'ill-will towards Government' the great *Tribune* said:—"The words 'ill-will to Government' are not however explicit. Is the word Government in the phrase intended to mean the Queen's Government or the Local Administration?—the ruling power, or the executive agency?—the Sovereign Mistress of the Empire, or her officers in the country? None is better aware than His Honour that the Supreme Power and the administrative authority are quite distinct; and nowhere is this distinction made so broadly and clearly as in England. When, for instance, Mr. Disraeli denounced the other day the present Government of Her Majesty as "blundering and plundering," it would be a gross perversion of language to interpret this imputation into 'ill-will to Government,' that is, Sovereign authority, the Queen herself. And yet I fear the charge brought against the *Patriot* involves this misuse of words, It

would be impertinent in me to remark that if criticisms of public men and measures be construed into 'ill-will to Government,' there is not a single journal in this country, with the slightest pretence to independence, which would not be open to this charge. Constituted as the British Government in India is, in which the governed millions are utterly unrepresented and which is administered by aliens in birth, religion, habits, sentiments and feelings, the Press is the only channel for the communication of the views and wishes of the people,—the safety-valve, so to speak, of the political steam working in the body of the masses. None is better aware than my humble self that the Native Press has many shortcomings; that it has much to learn and unlearn; but nothing, I respectfully submit, could be more unjust than to ascribe to it 'ill-will to Government,' because it considers it its duty to criticise the proceedings of the local administration, or particular officers of Government." If Kristodas Pal had been living to-day he would have not only found the charge more lavishly and indiscriminately laid against his countrymen, but also a more forcible illustration for the distinction and the defence; when it has been permissible in our own times for Orangemen, under the organized leadership of a man whom even the King was not precluded from inviting to a conference, to rise in armed rebellion against the established Government of the country without however forfeiting their allegiance to the Sovereign under the constitution. Sedition in the sense of treason really existed nowhere in the country except perhaps in the wild hallucination of a panic-stricken bureaucracy hypnotised by an unscrupulous Jingo Press, and the cry of Sedition was only either a blind man's buff, or a wild goose-chase in the country. If an occasion should ever arise to put India's loyalty to a real test it will then be realized how silly and injudicious it was to cry "the wolf" when there was actually no wolf in the field.*

* The recent war in Europe has furnished such an occasion and such a test. Whole India has enthusiastically risen in defence of the Empire and there is now not a man in England who seems to entertain the shadow of a doubt as regards India's devotion to the Imperial connection.

A question thus arises, what then was this unrest and why was there such constant friction between the people and the Government? And again the dictum of Burke comes to the reply. If it be true as Lord Gladstone has said on a very recent occasion in South Africa that "convulsions could not happen unless there was something gravely wrong," then the cause of the unrest in India was not perhaps too far to seek. As has already been pointed out the stolid indifference and unsympathetic attitude of Government towards popular aims and aspirations, the imperious tone of the bureaucracy and its marked disposition towards opposing even the normal growth and development of the political rights and privileges of the people, the repeated instances of flagrant miscarriage of justice in cases between Indians and Europeans and the recurring famines had long created a deep-seated and widespread feeling of dissatisfaction,—but not *disaffection* unless want of gushing affection is tantamount to it as Justice Strachy would have us believe,—throughout the country. The thinking portion of the people laid all these preventible grievances at the door of the Government, while the ignorant mass attributed them to their invisible *Kismet* or inscrutable, Providence,—the last great argument of the Eastern mind which reconciles it to all worldly sufferings. But the feeling was there every year gaining in its volume as well as in its intensity. Then there came a lull, like the short interlude in a tragi-comic drama, during which the people caught fitful glimpse of a struggling ray of hope; but again the clouds thickened and darkened the atmosphere, when at last a strong, reactionary Viceroy appeared on the scene, who by his rigorous policy put a severe strain upon the patience of an already discontented people, and all discussions of public questions, not only in Bengal but in the other Provinces also, assumed a new tone and complexion. With the Partition in Bengal the Colonization Bill in the Punjab and the Official Secrets Act, the Press Messages Act and the Universities Act for the whole country, the Indian people were exasperated beyond measure, and a section of the Press also began to give vent to the feeling

in the country with a degree of warmth and licence which the authorities construed into Sedition. In the prevailing temper of the bureaucracy repression was prescribed as the proper remedy for the situation, and the Government of Lord Minto went on forging a series of drastic measures, such as the further widening of the Official Secrets Act, the Public Meetings Act, the Press Act, the Sedition Law, the Explosives Act, the Seditious Meetings Act and a number of ordinances and circulars by which the right of free speech and free criticism was practically abrogated; while quite an army of inefficient and unscrupulous men under the name of C. I. D. officers was let loose upon society, whose impertinent attention did not spare Members of Councils or even of Parliament travelling in the country. Some old, obsolete Regulations, whose existence was nearly forgotten till the Bombay Government discovered it, were brought out of the dusty armoury of Government and several men of note, some of whom were fully believed by the people to be quite incapable of any offence, were deported without a trial. In Bombay the Natu Brothers were thus dealt with in 1897; in the Punjab Mr. Lajput Rai and Sirdar Ajit Singh were deported in 1907: while in the following year, out of a long list of eligible candidates in Bengal, the following nine persons were selected to receive the complement; viz.,—Messrs. Krishna Kumar Mitra, Aswini Kumar Dutt, Shyamsunder Chuckerjaty, Subodh Chandra Mullik, Sachindraprasad Bose, Satish Chandra Chatterjee, Pulin Behary Das, Monoranjan Guha and Bhupesh Chandra Nag. All of these men were evidently ready to make whatever sacrifices were demanded of them for the country's cause and a few of them were probably also not a little proud of the advertisement thus given to them. Press prosecutions, proscriptions and confiscations also became very frequent. The *Bande mataram*, the *Jugantar* and the *Sandhyā*, a most intemperate and scurrilous paper in Bengal, and several papers in the other provinces were suppressed. Mr. Tilak as Editor of the *Mahratta* was sent to prison; Bromho Bundhab Upadhyā, Editor of the *Sandhyā*, died in hospital, and

Mr. Aurobinda Ghose, the supposed Editor of the *Bande mataram* sought refuge in French territory. Police-raids, house-searches and espionage became the order of the day; while conferences and public meetings were forcibly broken up and suspended in many places, particularly in Eastern Bengal. Even the Education Department so long held almost sacred in the estimation of the public was pressed into a secret service with the "little barbarians" in the schools as political suspects. Like the red rag to the bull, the innocent expression *Bande mataram* became almost intolerable to a certain class of officials. Some interpreted it to mean 'seize and beat the monkey,' others suspected it to be a secret watchword for committing violence; while in point of fact the harmless expression coined by a novelist more than a decade before meant nothing but—'I salute thee, my motherland.' Even the sacred *Geeti* was not spared, and in many a house-search where nothing incriminating could be laid hold on the *Geeta* was eagerly seized and carried away as an important find. The people became incensed and that was but natural. The Swadeshi-Boycott was rightly or wrongly started as the first open protest against this high-handed administration. But to add fuel to the fire the fanatical Mahomedan mass were incited by a class of designing people against the Hindus, and several cases of riot, pillage, desecration, sacrilege and outrage upon women took place in Eastern Bengal and the Punjab. People were not wanting even in official circle who exultantly cited these instances as a foretaste of what might be in store for the Hindus if the strong hand of the Government were either withdrawn or even relaxed; while the bureaucracy generally were not slow complacently to refer all these disturbances to the Swadeshi-Boycott movement and the "National Volunteers," as if when that was said all was said against these acts of lawlessness. A suspicion arose in the minds of some people that all these were parts of a settled policy to put down the new spirit and that the Swadeshi movement was made only a scapegoat of that policy. Impartial and independent officers were not, however, altogether wanting to speak out

the truth. In Eastern Bengal one European Magistrate, who is now a member of the Bengal Government, openly said that "the Boycott was not the cause of the disturbances," as it could not possibly be since that movement inured more to the direct benefit of the poor low-class Mussalmans who formed the bulk of the weavers and shoemakers in the country; while another Special Magistrate, a Mahomedan gentleman of culture and independence, trying a batch of these Mussalman rioters remarked in his judgment that "there was not the least provocation for rioting; the common object of the rioters was evidently to molest the Hindus." In another case the same Magistrate observed:—"The evidence adduced on the side of the prosecution shows that on the date of the riot the accused (a Mussalman) read over a notice to a crowd of Mussalmans and told them that the Government and the Nawab Bahadur of Dacca have passed orders to the effect that nobody would be punished for plundering and oppressing the Hindus. So, after the Kali's image was broken by the Mussalmans, the shops of the Hindu traders were also plundered." Again another European Magistrate in his report on another riot case wrote; that "some Mussalmans proclaimed by beat of drum that the Government has permitted them to loot the Hindus;" while in an abduction case the same Magistrate remarked that "the outrages were due to an announcement that the Government had permitted the Mahomedans to marry Hindu widows in *Nika* form." There was, however, yet another and a more disgraceful incident. In 1910 the Metropolis itself was in the hand of a Mussalman mob and for three days and nights the rich Marwari jewellers of the city were plundered with the Lieutenant-Governor himself at Belvedere and an indignant though powerless Viceroy at Government House. And what was still more disgraceful and demoralizing, the Lieutenant-Governor lost no time after the riot was over in coming out with a long winded rignmarole manifesto defending and whitewashing the police. That weak Governor, one of the best in the service, no doubt soon paid the penalty of his weakness at the hand of a strong

Viceroy; but the painful impression produced in the mind of the community by these incidents had its baneful effect. The true explanation, though not the real interpretation, of these harrowing disturbances was, however, to be found in what was called the "Red Pamphlet," which was written by a Mussalman and circulated broadcast among the Mahomedans of East Bengal. This inflammatory leaflet had not the faintest allusion either to the Swadeshi or the Volunteer movement; but it deliberately incited the Mussalmans against the Hindus on racial and religious grounds and upon the supposed bias of Government in favour of Islam; and strange to say, that the man who preached this *Jehad* was tardily brought to trial long after the mischief had been done and only bound down to keep the peace for one year! While instances were not altogether rare where Hindus for writings of less graver description were sentenced to transportation. No sensible Hindu of course believed in the so-called Government Orders, but the apparent bias of the local authorities naturally alienated the bulk of the Hindus who were chafing under a sense of unredressed wrongs if not actually "burning with resentment." All this was in Bengal; while in the Punjab, six lawyers of position were placed on their trial at Rawalpindi as political offenders who, according to the alarmist crowd of Sedition-mongers, had by their inflammatory speeches incited violent riots. For six long months these respectable professional men were detained in prison and ultimately they were all honourably acquitted, the Special Magistrate trying the case holding that the evidence for the prosecution was "suspicious if not fabricated."

It is a significant fact that these tactics were largely in evidence in the two provinces where the lower elements of the Mussalman population were in the majority. The attempts of the inferior officers of Government to whitewash themselves and make their occupation smooth and easy by referring these disturbances to the leaders of the people, who were nearly all Congressmen, constituted another blunder which went a long way towards alienating the public, and people were not wanting

who actually argued that if the popular leaders could be accused of inciting one community to commit disturbances, with equal propriety the local officials could be charged with indirectly fomenting violence among the other community. The natural leaders of the two communities and indeed the upper classes of both throughout maintained their longstanding friendly relation in the least unaffected by these disturbances. If the volumes of confidential reports and cypher messages which came very largely into use at this period could see the light of day it might be possible to make a fair apportionment of the responsibilities of the situation, thus created, between the bureaucracy and the people; but to all outward appearances the former made a grievous mistake in making an indiscriminate attack upon all the parties affected—the masses and the classes, the aristocracy and the gentry—and the moderates and the extremists. They were all made the common target of official criticisms and subjected to one sweeping condemnation. In the Swadeshi movement the Mahomedans were actively associated with the Hindus in several places; but they generally received a differential treatment. Anyhow the tension between the Hindus and the bureaucracy became strained almost to the breaking point and even sober, impartial Mahomedans were not wholly wanting who felt that the policy of divide and rule could hardly have been extended more openly or more aggressively in certain direction. A number of thoughtless but impressionable young men were taken off their feet under the influence of some violent speeches and writings of a few enthusiasts and these running amock committed several dastardly outrages which furnished the Government with a legitimate excuse for a series of repressive measures unheard of in this country since the dark days of the mutiny. The grim spectre of anarchism at last reared its head in a country noted for its piety and overscrupulous tenderness even for the insects and the worms. Secret murders and assassinations took place in towns as well as villages and some secret societies for the commission of crimes were also discovered in the country. In panic the bure-

aucracy, fanned by a hysterical press, cried out that the country was on the verge of a mutiny. At this critical situation the Indian National Congress and its members rendered a service to the State as well as to the country which in the heat of passion and prejudice may not have been properly recognised by either; but which the impartial future historian of this gloomy period will be bound ungrudgingly to record. In a strong adverse current the natural leaders of the people as represented in the Congress stood firm and by their example as well as their influence kept the public under control. Not a few of them on critical occasions flung themselves boldly in the midst of seething disturbances and where the police failed with their regulation *lathies* succeeded in maintaining peace and order by their moving sympathy and persuasive eloquence. But for the firmness and the restraining influence of the Congress and the much-abused Congressmen the country might have been involved in a much wider and a more serious conflagration. If they were unable to do more, it was more on account of want of confidence in them than any want of earnestness on their part. Unfortunately, however, all the reward that they earned for their services was unmerited calumnies and aspersions on the one hand and wanton insults and opprobrium on the other, and when all was over, the bureaucracy indulged in mutual admiration of the valour, tact and resourcefulness of its members in having successfully averted the repetition of a second chapter of the affairs of 1858.

Unrest had no doubt reached an acute stage and the deadly spirit of anarchism and lawlessness was undoubtedly stalking the streets of cities and towns even in broad daylight; and it was also true that the situation became such as not only to justify but also to make it incumbent upon a civilized Government to take stringent measures for the preservation of peace and order and for the security of life and property. No one could reasonably complain of any legitimate and adequate measure that Government might adopt for the suppression of these heinous crimes. The difference lay only in the means and methods employed.

Measures were introduced which made no distinction between the innocent many and the guilty few and in their operation the guilty and the innocent were involved in one confusion. In fact, in some cases the rigours of these bad laws were visited mostly upon the peaceful citizens, while the criminals escaped scot-free. For instance, in the case of the Press Laws the people were perfectly at a loss to understand how the muzzling of a public press could help either in the suppression or in the detection of the dark deeds of the anarchist who moved in secret, hatched his plans in secret and carried them out in secret. In a situation like this the forces of public opinion should have been rallied on the side of the bureaucracy; but they were simply alienated. It was complained, not without some show of reason, that the people withheld their co-operation from the Government; but it was evidently overlooked that Government itself made hearty co-operation practically impossible. Sentiments are often reciprocal, and it is confidence that begets confidence. When the Government evidently distrusted the people and was busy continuously forging fetters for them without distinction it was idle to expect any active co-operation from the people. It is always a bad policy to burn the candle at both ends.

Anarchism was soon followed by another serious crime—Robbery. The truth, however, seemed to be that a section of the bureaucracy were unable to divest themselves of their erroneous impression that both anarchism and robbery were the outward manifestations of an undercurrent of treason. It has been truly observed that when John Bull begins to suspect, he generally begins at the wrong end and that even when the other end forces itself upon his attention he refuses to retrace his step. A little reflection would have shewn that the real objective of the anarchist and the robber in this country has been the police, the approver and the witness and in one case only it was also the Magistrate in a criminal trial. None but an anarchist need defend anarchism. The anarchist is the common enemy of God and man and in every age and every climate

civilized humanity has refused to recognise the brotherhood of the secret murderer and the dastardly assassin. But anarchism is not one of those tropical diseases which a European need study and investigate in a tropical country at the expense of a tropical people. Its therapeutics ought to be well known to him. Anarchism like plague has undeniably been imported into this country, one from the Far East and the other from the West. They were the unavoidable concomitants of free trade and free communication, and it is the characteristic of both that wherever they find their way they come to stay until the poison has spent itself. A civilized Government is no doubt bound to fight out both; but in either case the operation should be carefully confined to the rat and not indiscriminately extended to the cat and the kite as well. No sensible man will burn the curtain to get rid of the bug. In this country, however, laws are sometimes made more with a view to make the administration easier than to meet the actual necessities of a situation. The laws of rioting, of accomplices and of conspiracy, all woven with the imaginary thread of a legal fiction, are so many arbitrary inventions for running the administration on convenient lines though at considerable sacrifice of the best interests of justice and fairness, not to speak of the individual rights of free citizenship. One false step imperceptibly leads to another and the law permitting, for the ends of justice in extreme cases, the conversion of an offender to a witness has in recent years been carried too far, particularly in the so-called political trials, at the instance of a police as notorious for its inefficiency as for its corruption. The practice has assumed the proportion of such a scandal as to attract the notice of Parliament and a proposal is actually on foot to amend the law on the subject. The anarchists in this country will generally be found associated with gangs of robbers and secret assassins with no ulterior political object in view. They are a revised edition of the *Thugs* and *Goondahs* of a previous generation with this difference that they have ascended a little higher in the scale of society and have taken to more refined wea-

pons of destruction. Whatever their means and methods may be, their aim generally is the police and the approver,—the man who manipulates evidence against them and the man who either betrays their secrets, or securely perjures himself against them. To invest these pests of society with the title of political offenders is to inspire them with an idea of false martyrdom and to indirectly set a premium upon lawlessness.

It has been pointed out that the unrest in India cannot logically be traced to a really seditious or treasonable movement in the country. It is the visible manifestation of a deep-seated and wide-spread discontent which has gradually accumulated through years of unsympathetic bureaucratic administration and which in its latest development is only a rigorous though ill-advised protest against that administration. It may be *disaffection*; but with due deference to the Indian Legislature and the Indian Judges it is neither Sedition nor Treason. The origin and growth of this unrest and the causes underlying it may be summed up as follows:—

The extremely slow and over-cautious movement of the Government and its inability to keep pace with the general advancement of the people to which it at the same time largely contributed may be regarded as the primary cause of the deplorable tension that has arisen between the two parties. The termination of the misrule of the East India Company at the end of a great military rising and with the establishment of a settled Government directly under the Crown marks a turning point in the history of British rule in India. The Queen's Proclamation of 1858 following a drastic change in the Government filled the people's mind with ardent hope of not only peace and prosperity but also of steady progress and consolidation of their political rights and privileges as British citizens. Peace was restored and justice was firmly established; but the free citizenship was still withheld from them. On the whole, the Government up to 1898 was no doubt a progressive one; but its motion was so slow that for all practical purposes the people regarded it as a fixed body and its

immobility became a byword in the country. A complete generation passed away and every reform from time to time proposed or promised proved a source of fresh disappointment; while the occasional shortening of their tether in one direction or another made the people completely distrustful of the administration. This want of confidence led to misunderstanding, and misunderstanding to irritation and discontent.

The next cause which more than any other aggravated the situation, was the racial distinction manifested in the administration of criminal justice. From the trial of Maharajah Nund Coomar down to the latest prosecution of a European upon a charge of murder of a native of the country the people were never able to divest themselves of the belief that there was invariably a galling failure of justice in cases between Indians and Europeans. Apart from the numerous cases of indigo planters and tea planters, there was hardly to be found a single instance where a European, whether a soldier or a civilian, voluntarily causing the death of a defenceless Indian did not escape with the payment of a fine not exceeding rupees one hundred only, the usual scale being fifty. A man dragging a live fish or breaking the legs of a crab was sometimes fined Rs. 50 and the spectacle of a European causing the death of a human being and the penalty being the same amount was neither edifying nor conducive to cordial relations between the governing classes and the governed however fragile and enlarged the Indian spleen might be. The Fuller Minute of Lord Lytton, the Resolutions of Lord Curzon in the cases of the Rangoon and Sialkote battalions and the proceedings of the O'Hara case in Bengal may be read to form only an imperfect estimate of the depth of feeling with which the people generally regarded these cases between Indians and Europeans, and what was still more regrettable, men were not altogether wanting who would quote old *Manu* to justify these proceedings at the present day.

The third and immediate cause of the unrest must be referred to the reactionary policy which asserted itself in the counsels of the Empire in recent years. It has been truly



SIR K. G. GUPTA.



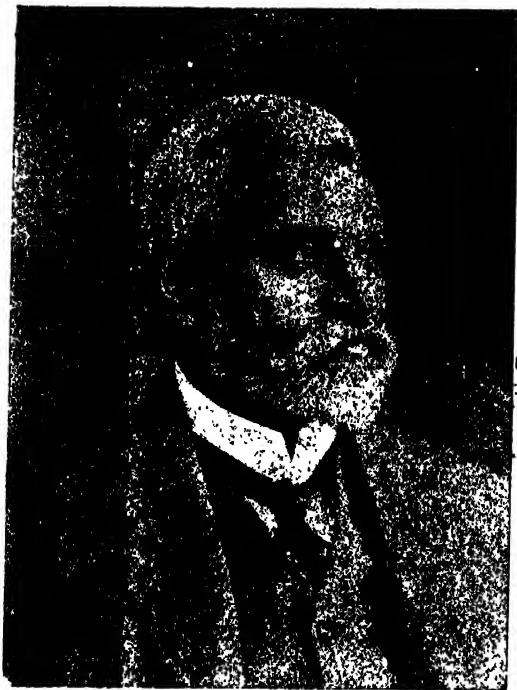
RT. HON. SIR SYED AMIR ALI.



HON. MR. P. S. SIVASWAMI AIYAR, C.I.E.



HON. SYED ALI IMAM.



BABU BHUPENDRANATH BASU.



DR. SIR S. SUBRAHMANYA AIYER.



THE HON. MR. MAZRUL HAQUE.



USUF ALI, I.C.S.



DADABHAI NAOROJI.



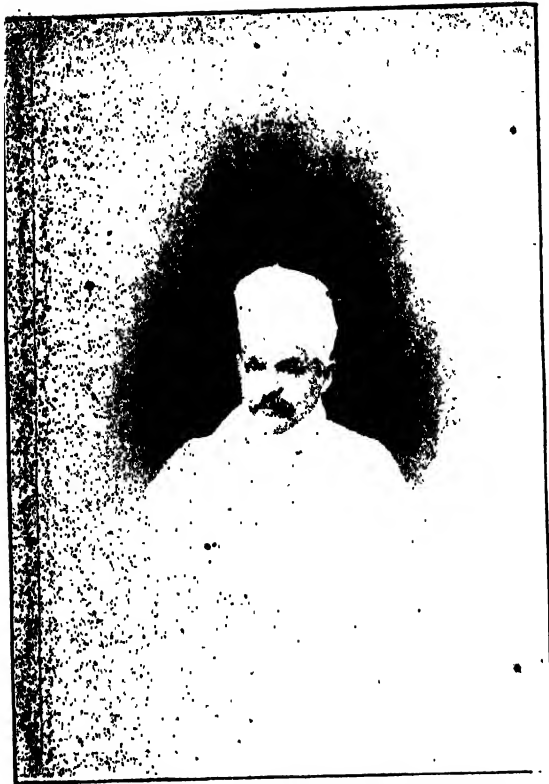
G. K. GOKHALE.



M. K. GANDHI.



SURENDRANATH BANNERJEA.



PUNDIT MADAN MOHAN MALAVYA.



DR. RASH BEHARI GHOSE.



RAJA SIR HARNAM SINGH.



HON. SIR G. M. CHITNAVIS.

remarked by Mr. Henry Nevins that "although no hard-and-fast line can be drawn in history, the arrival of Lord Curzon as Viceroy on December 30, 1898, marks a fully strong and natural division." During the forty years that elapsed between 1858 and 1898 the Government in its oscillatory motion going backwards and forwards on the whole marked a steady though slow progress. It was Lord Curzon who set back the hand of the clock and reversed the policy into a complete retrograde one. It may be that he was in his own way right in thinking that the policy of 1858 was wrong; but that policy having been accepted and worked upon for nearly half a century with the fullest consciousness of its ultimate results, Lord Curzon was himself in the wrong in trying to change it at this distance of time when the people had outgrown the old system, and as Lord Macaulay had fully anticipated, were with the expansion of their minds, aspiring to institutions, rights and privileges with which that policy had naturally inspired their minds. It was too late. This retrograde policy which sharply manifested itself in almost every branch of the administration and which was received with a chorus of applause by a notoriously Conservative bureaucracy supported by an equally Conservative Press gave a rude shock to the popular mind and the discontent which had long been brewing in the country burst into a flame. Lord Curzon evidently struck by the magnitude of this discontent attempted to throw the responsibility on his successor saying that there was no disturbance so long as he was in this country; but the popular verdict was unanimous that it was *his* policy which set the house on fire, though he was just lucky enough in successfully making his escape before the smoking fire blazed out.

The repressive policy which Lord Minto adopted to cope with a situation for which he was not himself responsible, was a mistaken remedy and served only to aggravate the situation. The various measures with which he sought to restore peace and order in the country wore the appearance more of a newly conquered territory than of a settled country.

The suppression of free speech, the muzzling of the press, espionage, house-searches and police surveillance from which even the most respected in the land were not exempted, became the order of the day; while quite an army of C. I. D. officers mostly recruited from among the refuse of society and who acted more as spies than as detectives made the situation still more intolerable and completely alienated the public.

A fifth cause underlying the unrest was the supposed policy of stirring up racial jealousy and setting one class against another in the administration of the country. That policy was once tried in favour of the Hindus and against the Mussalmans at an early period of the British rule and was again repeated now only the order being reversed. Whether in the public services, or in the Municipal and Local Boards, or in the Legislative Councils, the people perceived the working of this racial bias and although the Government was not altogether without some justification in certain cases, the majority of the people were not slow to attribute its actions to the working of a settled policy.

The overbearing and imperious conduct of the bureaucracy was also not a little responsible for the growth of this unrest. Every one cried peace when very few by their act and conduct contributed towards peace. There was more talk than act of living sympathy between the local authorities and the people; while as to mutual trust and confidence both sides were aware that they were simply conspicuous by their absence. In fact, to such an extent was official suspicion carried that it sometimes interfered with natural affection and violently disturbed domestic relationship. Cases were neither few nor far between where brothers were forced to break up from brothers and fathers from their sons. While such was the state of things enforced by the condition of the services, the feeling of discontent naturally grew from day to day and spread from family to family.

Another cause which has largely contributed to the growth of this unrest was the constant and systematic flouting of public

opinion by the authorities in this country.^o The practice of treating Indian public opinion with perfect indifference and of running counter to such opinion on almost all questions of public importance was often carried to such irritating extent that the average people came to regard it as part of a settled policy. Indeed bitter experience had shown that to anticipate the decision of Government in any important question, one had only to spin out all conceivable arguments against the trend of public opinion and the result of such a process seldom turned out to be incorrect. This not infrequently led cynical publicists sarcastically to suggest that the engine should be reversed and that the very opposite of what the people wanted should be the theme of the public platform and of the public press. Public censure of an officer often acted as a passport to his advancement and instances were neither few nor far between where the sharp criticism of the acts of an unpopular officer happened to be met by his almost immediate promotion. The popularity of an officer counted only for disqualification. All this was said to be due to the *fetish* of official prestige. The prestige of a Government is no doubt its most valuable asset; but true prestige does not consist in riding rough-shod over public opinion and in inspiring dread into public mind, but in securing the allegiance and approbation of the popular voice and in enlisting the confidence and co-operation of the people. It is despotism that trusts in its iron will; but a constitutional government is always founded upon the bed-rock of popular ideas and sentiments.

* * *

The last cause which aggravated the unrest must be traced to the intemperate writings and wild vapourings of a section of the people, who found ample opportunities in the unsympathetic attitude of the authorities to foment the irritation which rankled in the minds of the public.

Whether this ugly development was due to bureaucratic methods or to a malignant growth in the body politic, or to the economic condition of a certain class of population, its appearance was undoubtedly a grave menace to

society and a serious obstacle to orderly progress. Whatever might be the true genesis of these sporadic instances of moral depravity, the question still remained to be considered whether general repression was the proper remedy even in view of a possible outbreak of such a malady. The true remedy for anarchy, says Burke, is conciliation and not coercion; for coercion however drastic always leaves room for coercing again. If therefore these disturbances were no more than abnormal developments of crimes, the arm of the ordinary law of land was surely long and strong enough to reach and put down these criminals; but if on the other hand they were connected with any political condition in the country, the remedy applied was singularly inappropriate. The first manifestation of this unrest was admittedly political and the present condition of the country amply illustrates the truth of Burke's dictum. It has been admitted even by Sir Valentine Chirol that the Indian political atmosphere has been largely cleared up by the inauguration of a policy of conciliation, which had been so darkly clouded by a policy of repression. If Lord Curzon was primarily responsible for the outbreak, two methods were open to his successors to deal with it, and both the methods were tried one after the other. Lord Minto was advised to resort to repression, and he tried it to the fullest extent, but failed; while Lord Hardinge took to the other method of conciliation and at once succeeded. That is a practical demonstration whose visible result can neither be disputed nor ignored. A question, however, still arises,—has the unrest been completely dissipated and do we now live in perfect sunshine? Are the people and the bureaucracy fully reconciled, and is there no cause for further anxiety? In justice to truth and frankness these unpleasant questions must be answered in the negative. Undoubtedly the situation has vastly improved; but in spite of the prevailing calm and cheering signs of peace all round there is the sore still rankling in the bosom of both the bureaucracy and the people. The loud talk of official sympathy, with which the official documents and utteran-

ces resound and which for aught we know, may be perfectly genuine and undefiled at its fountain-source, seems however to touch the heart of the country very lightly. The tension between the executive officers and the educated community is not yet relaxed to an appreciable extent; while in some places the habit of distrust and suspicion and the dogging of the innocents seem to be still in operation. The policy has no doubt changed; but the practice has not fully moved out of its old groove. The repressive measures still stand on the statute book, while occasional reminders are not altogether wanting to apprise the public that there is no intention of even treating them as dead letters. The higher officials have no doubt become in many places more polite and courteous; but it seems extremely doubtful if any real cordiality has been established between the official hierarchy and the leaders of public opinion in the country. Even the serene atmosphere of the legislative assemblies is not sometimes free from the flying dusts of the streets. If the situation is to be radically and permanently improved mere superficial treatment must not be depended on and a more searching enquiry should be made into the real causes of discontent and a genuine effort made to remove them root and branch, though it may involve some sacrifice and a little loss of official prestige.

As regards the remedy it should be borne in mind that although every doctor, and specially the authorized house-surgeon in a hospital, is entitled to his own prescription, the disease really requires but one treatment, and that no surgeon however skilful should resort to Cæsarian operation until all the ordinary rules of midwifery have failed. If the most drastic methods hitherto employed have failed to produce the desired result, there must be other methods which ought at least to have a fair trial. And above all, a correct diagnosis of the situation should be attempted without any bias or prejudice. There are, as has been pointed out by an eminent authority, a number of forces at work in the Indian polity at the present moment which must be so regulated and co-ordinated that their resultant force may

make for progress on the line of least resistance or friction. These forces are,—1st, the Parliament, the central body, from which all the other forces radiate and to which all powers, when once created, are supposed to gravitate and it is the ultimate authority controlling the entire system; 2ndly, the Secretary of State or the Minister for India, the seat of parliamentary power, who holds all the threads of the Indian administration in his hand and directs all its operations from Whitehall, being nominally responsible to Parliament; 3rdly, the Viceroy and the Government of India, the lever which, with the assistance of the local administrations like so many flywheels, works the entire machinery on the spot; 4thly, the Anglo-Indian Bureaucracy, a compact hierarchy dominating the entire administration from top to bottom and mounting guard over every passage and avenue leading to the inner sanctuary of that administration; 5thly, the Indian People as represented by the Indian National Congress, the howling pariah dog that barks out the thief all night to receive in the morning occasional lashes for disturbing the master's sleep with a few crumbs from the refuse of the morning and the evening meals as the reward of his thankless, gratuitous services, and 6thly and lastly, the growing spirit of crimes and lawlessness, the anarchist and the robber, a direct challenge to force no. 4, which being primarily responsible for exercising this evil spirit is now unable to bottle it and in its just endeavour to control it largely, tends towards general mischief though in a different direction.

To pursue these points a little further, the first is no doubt the highest and the most important of these forces; but it travels such an immense distance and passes through so many media that its real power is better understood than felt in this country. The parliamentary control over Indian affairs was considerably weakened after the transfer of the sovereignty of the country to the Crown, and it would perhaps be no great exaggeration to say that it has gradually been reduced almost to a vanishing point. "The nearer the Church the farther from faith," is a trite old saying which seems to apply with equal force to the great

Mother of Parliaments as any other institution ; for as far as India is concerned that august body now sits almost quiescent like the great cosmic force in Hindu philosophy which is supposed to have existence without action and consciousness without volition, a mere silent witness to the wondrous creation around, which however cannot go on without its metaphysical existence. Instances are not wanting where this supreme authority has been not only treated with scant courtesy, but its solemn decision also over-ruled with perfect impunity by authorities admittedly subordinate to it. This has a very unwholesome effect upon Indian minds which regard the British Parliament as a palladium of justice and the final arbiter of the Empire's fate. * * *

At the bar of the House the Indian bureaucracy should be ordinarily considered as put upon its trial; but the position is more often than not reversed, the bureaucracy appearing as the prosecutor and a totally unrepresented people as the accused, and the judgment of the House generally goes *ex parte* against them. The general result of questions and debates in Parliament regarding matters Indian, therefore, produces a very unfavourable impression upon the people, who are thus not unnaturally driven to the conclusion that there is hardly any remedy against the vagaries of the Executive out in this country. The first step toward any improvement of the present situation would, therefore, be for Parliament to assume greater control over the Indian administration and to exercise closer supervision over its management. The theory of the "man on the spot" has been carried to extravagant excess and it is high time that it were thoroughly revised.

The Secretary of State is the real seat of power under the present arrangement. He is assisted by a Council of 9 to 15 retired veterans of the service; but he is in practice, though not under the statute, a perfect autocrat, although one of the greatest autocrats that India has ever seen since the days of Aurangzeb has at last openly confessed that "anything which has a suspicion of autocracy in a case like that of India" should be carefully avoided and be humbly submitted to the House that in India autocracy "would not only be a blunder,

but almost a crime." That crime however has been an outstanding feature of the Indian administration since the battle of Plassey. The India Council is mostly composed of a number of retired Anglo-Indian officials grown grey in Anglo-Indian prejudices and strongly saturated with the instincts and traditions of an almost irresponsible Anglo-Indian autocracy. The first Congress in 1885 urged for the abolition of this Council which only worked for mischief by stiffening the Secretary of State against any substantial reform of the Indian administration, and five years after, the sixth Congress also repeated the charge. The only change that has since taken place in the constitution of this Council is the introduction of two Indian members into it by Lord Morley without however any statutory recognition. Lord Crewe attempted to give this improvement the force of a legal provision and make it a permanent feature of the institution; but Lord Crewe's India Council Bill of 1914 has been rejected by the House of Lords. The Bill was not a measure of perfection; but yet it contained some germs of reform which once accepted might have in future years paved the way towards popularizing the Council of the Secretary of State. * * *

Thus a great opportunity has been lost for the improvement of the real seat of power in the administration of the country, which may not recur within another decade. Whenever that opportunity comes, it shall be India's case, that although the Viceroy and the Government of India should never be subordinated to any member or department of the India Council, the constitution of that Council should be materially altered, so that not less than one-third of its members may be Indians, another third taken from among tried politicians in England totally unconnected with the Indian administration and the rest selected from among a certain class of retired Anglo-Indian officials of experience. Thus there will be one section of the Council faithfully representing the Indian view, another section the view of the bureaucracy, while the third will hold the balance evenly between the two. The present arrangement under which the bureaucracy has an overwhelming preponderance in

that Council practically sitting in judgment over its own actions may be convenient for the administration, but can never be good for the people. It is not enough that the real seat of power is just; but it is also necessary that its justice should be felt and understood in this country and its people inspired with confidence in the justice of the administration.

Then comes the Viceroy, the supreme head of all the local administrations and the real representative of the Crown on the spot. He is generally a British statesman of distinction and comes out to India apparently without any bias or prejudice. But once he assumes office he finds himself isolated, or more correctly speaking, hemmed in on all sides by bureaucratic influences which it is his duty to control, but to which, he is often bound to succumb. Experience is no doubt a valuable asset in every worldly concern; but keen insight and sound judgment based upon a dispassionate survey of both sides of a question are of far greater importance towards the success of a great administration. An exaggerated importance seems always to have been attached to local knowledge both in regard to the Council of the Secretary of State as well as the Executive Council of the Governor-General; but in both these cases it is apparently overlooked that local knowledge and experience may often be a bundle of prejudices begotten of one-sided study of the people and the country, of natural pride of superiority, as well as of the bias of jealousy and selfishness. Familiarity often breeds contempt, while class interest sometimes unconsciously magnifies our preconceived notions and ideas. So that "the man on the spot" has his advantages as well as his disadvantages. Nature has its counterpoise in all its arrangements, and so long as the Council of the Governor-General, no less than that of the Secretary of State, is not well proportioned and evenly balanced in its bureaucratic as well as popular influences, the best intentioned and the strongest of Viceroys must fail to give effect to his noblest ideals and projects, and the legitimate aspirations of the people must remain indefinitely postponed, resulting inevitably in irritation and discontent. If the administration is to be popularized as a

* means to secure the real co-operation of the people and thereby shift a portion of the responsibility as well as its unpopularity from the Government to the people, the overwhelming preponderance of the bureaucracy in the Government of India as well as in the Local Governments, must be reduced to a minimum.

The fourth power of the State, the bureaucracy, is the real power felt and understood by the people in every day life in this country. By it the entire weight of the administration is measured and its quality both in tone and character determined. The theory of efficiency has of recent years been carried to extravagant excess, reducing the administration to a lifeless machinery without the initiative of any sentient being. And the working of this machinery is entirely vested in one train of officials all of whom are cast in one mould, trained in one uniform standard and all revolving as it were on a common axis and regulated by a common impulse. Their discipline is exact and praiseworthy and their cohesion almost metallic. It seems impossible to touch this train at any one point without an instantaneous response being transmitted throughout the entire system. Such a system no doubt secures smoothness of routine work and uniformity in its output; but can hardly be progressive. Its power of resistance to innovation is both natural and enormous. * * *

The centralization of all authority in one particular service has a distinct tendency towards creating a rigid official caste system, which like all caste systems presents a dead wall against any change and works only for mischief. The result is, that as the bureaucracy generally looks with disfavour upon any proposal of reform advanced by the people, so the people view with distrust any measure inaugurated by the bureaucracy. The first step towards effecting a cordial *rapprochement* between the two, must therefore be to strike a golden mean where each may meet the other half way, and this can only be done by breaking down the official caste system which is rapidly crystallizing itself and gradually alienating the people from the Government. The subject forms the crucial point of the administration and will be more fully

dealt with in a separate chapter.

The next great force is that of public opinion as represented by the Indian National Congress to which the Moslem League is also rapidly converging. *Vox Populi Vox Dei* may not be fully true of a subject people in a dependency; but no Government however strong or despotic can afford completely to ignore public opinion in the matter of its administration. The voice of the people may not be sometimes wise; but it may often be irresistible; and to keep it within reasonable bounds it becomes necessary to conciliate it by sympathy instead of exasperating it by show of violence or open disregard. Public opinion in this country is not yet sufficiently vigorous to assert itself; but it is gaining strength every day both in volume as well as intensity and is sufficiently pretty strong not to be treated as an altogether negligible quantity.

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A regular tug of war in which the people pull in one way and a close bureaucracy in another, may be an exciting trial of strength; but it always acts as a dead weight to progress and orderly Government; while persistent flouting of public opinion must inevitably let loose forces of disorder in society.

This brings us to a consideration of the sixth and the last force—the force of disorder and lawlessness. Without entering into any discussion as to the origin of this ugly development and without making any attempt towards an apportionment of the responsibility of the situation between the people and the bureaucracy, it may be pointed out that this new phase is as much a slur upon the administration as it is upon the character of the people themselves. The sinister spirit of heinous crimes seems not to have wholly died out and sporadic cases of assassination and robbery are still reported from different parts of the country. They are mostly actuated either by motives of self-preservation, private grudge, or avarice; but what is most deplorable is, that they are not confined to the habitual criminal population of the country. People who happen to belong to poor but respectable families and who have some pretension to

education also, have been drawn into these dark and dismal ways, while even schoolboys in some places appear to have been inveigled to join their ranks under false hopes and absurd misrepresentations. This is a most distressing phase of the situation. Various attempts have been made for the protection of these boys. Education has been officialized, schools have been barricaded and schoolboys segregated and placed under surveillance. Under the ban of political association these boys have been completely dissociated from healthy public influence with the result that they now deem themselves sometimes absolved even from their natural allegiance to their parents. It is the trite old story of “from the frying-pan into the fire.” To save the youths of the country from the hands of the much talked of political agitators these innocents have been driven into the folds of desperate criminals. It is however no use crying over spilt milk and abusing one another. Attempts should be made in all earnestness to eradicate the evil, even the latent germs of which unless carefully weeded out, are bound to grow and spread like a catching contagion. Of all the difficulties in practical life the greatest is perhaps that of admitting our own errors and divesting ourselves of our prejudices. The methods hitherto adopted for dealing with this new spirit of crimes have admittedly not succeeded, yet there seems to be no disposition to try other methods. Of the forces mentioned above, the first, second, third and the fifth should be combined and arrayed against the fourth and the sixth, both of which make for mischief though in different lines. The true remedy for the situation does not lie in new inventions, but in proper control and regulation of the forces that are already in existence. It is no doubt the common object of all the other forces to put down the last; but the operation is left entirely to the discretion of one, i.e., the fourth, while the other forces stand almost paralysed. Public opinion is wholly discounted except for the purpose of abuse, and the controlling powers are practically led by that one force which dominates the entire administration.

The World's Tribute to Belgium.

THE ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY:—Then the story of Belgium's steadfastness to her plighted word of honour, and her tireless resistance to high-handed wrong—a resistance sustained with unconquerable courage in face of ruthless and overwhelming force—will become one of the golden pages of the world's history.

H. H. THE AGA KHAN:—Had Belgium been guided by considerations of materialhood and immediate interest she should have accepted the Kaiser's promise not to molest or injure if he was allowed an undisputed passage to the French frontier for his troops. But this easy and inglorious course was not contemplated even for a moment. Belgium unhesitatingly chose the path of honour and duty and made an irreparable sacrifice of material good and moral glory. This undying record of a great refusal has appealed to the best traditions and sentiments of Moslems in India, whose history affords many stirring examples of readiness to lose all, even life itself, for honour and duty.

THE RT. HON. ARTHUR J. BALFOUR:—The weakness of the victim, the justice of her cause, the greatness of her sufferings, and her unconquerable soul, have moved the wonder and pity of the world.

HIS EXCELLENCY KATSUNOSKE INOUE:—In Japan where chivalry and patriotism reigns, Belgium's heroic defence has greatly aroused the sympathy of her people, and we join in the hope that her flag, adorned anew with glory, will in no distant future be floating again triumphantly throughout her dominion.

THE RT. HON. SIR EDWARD GREY, *Bar.*—Love of liberty and independence is not crushed by oppression and force, but set off by courage and suffering becomes an inspiration to its own generation and is exalted to an imperishable place in history.

LORD HARDINGE, VICEROY OF INDIA:—No nation has regarded with greater abhorrence than India the series of crime committed by Germans against their peaceful Belgian brothers. With the deep sympathy, felt for them by the people of India in this hour of sorrow, is coupled their admiration of the gallant resistance of their army against the heaviest odds. May they be comforted by the thought that their sacrifices will not have been in vain when the oppressors of the weak have been finally overthrown. India will never rest till Belgium's wrongs have been avenged.

THE MARQUESS OF CREWE:—Saluting with deep respect the gallant Belgians and their noble sovereign, we reflect that never in the world's history has any nation, with so slender a pretence of reason, been subjected to outrage so cruel and so deliberate as that which has lately stirred the blood of civilised mankind.

JOHN REDMOND:—There is no nation in the world which has been more profoundly touched than Ireland by the extraordinary gallantry of the Belgian people and their brave sovereign.

* Selections taken from "King Albert's Book" edited by Mr. Hall Caine, and published by the "Daily Telegraph," London.

EARL CURZON OF KEDLESTON:—For her fortitude she has paid the penalty of a suffering unequalled in modern history, inflicted by an enemy, to whose cruelty ancient history scarcely affords a parallel.

FREDERIC HARRISON:—In all modern history there is no example of a martyrdom by a whole nation—so cruel—so generous—so valiant. When France, Britain, Russia shall have crushed out this conspiracy against humanity, when militarism is extinct in Germany—extinct for ever in the world—whatever may have been the victories and the achievements of the allies—still for all time, the heroism of the Belgian people who "first bore the brunt of the terrible mede" (as the actors would say at Athens) will stand highest in the record of valour.

THE RT. HON. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE:—This unfortunate country is now overwhelmed by the barbarian flood; but when the sanguinary deluge subsides Belgium will emerge a great and a glorious land which every lover of liberty will honour, and every tyrant henceforth shun.

VISCOUNT BRYCE:—All honour to the Belgian King and the Belgian people. No King, and no nation, not even the oldest and strongest nation, has shown more dignity and gallantry than Belgium, which is amongst youngest and the smallest in area of European states.

NORMAN ANGELL:—Belgium has done this great service for all of us: she has shown how great a little country may be and how little a great one may become. She has shown that the real nobility of patriotism is not a matter of wide territory of political power and does not need to be nourished by these things; while the action of Germany towards Belgium has shown that power and size may well destroy all that makes patriotism worth while.

SIR OLIVER LODGE:—Humanity blesses the heroic struggle for freedom of the Belgian Nation; for without their aid the face of Europe would have been changed past redemption and the earth might have been subject to a brutal and intolerable dominance. We have witnessed in our own generation one of the classical contests of the world; and the tale will go down to the remote posterity—a tale of deep infamy and lofty honour—relating how at this time the powers of evil were frustrated, and how the holiest cause emerged, stricken but victorious,—triumphing as always through grievous pain.

SIR VALENTINE CHIROL:—King Albert is the only sovereign whose Royal title is not a territorial one. He is styled king, not of Belgium but of the Belgians; as if it had been pre-ordained that though a ruthless conqueror might rob him for a time of his kingdom, none should ever rob him of his kingship. Never perhaps more proudly than to-day, when his Government has been compelled to seek refuge on the hospitable soil of France and he himself, at the head of his indomitable army, is fighting close to the French frontier for the last inch of Belgian territory, has King Albert vindicated his right to a splendid title: King of the Belgians, Heroic head of an Heroic people.

THE RT. HON. A. BONAR LAW:—As a nation we long for a successful end to this terrible war, which is filling with mourning so many of our homes, but it can never end till the wrongs of Belgium have been avenged and expiated.

PROFESSOR PAUL VINOGRADOFF:—In ages to come travellers will look with pious emotion on the sites of Liege, Louvain, Antwerp, the shores of the Yser, and if at the close of this terrible war a prize were to be adjudicated to the most valiant nation, as the Greeks did in their war of independence against the Persian king, the prize would surely fall by unanimous consent to Belgium. If there is justice in the world and a meaning in history Belgium will arise out of the ashes, like Phoenix in renewed vigour and splendour.

BENJAMIN KIDD:—It is an immortal story of right rendered invincible through the crucifixion of a people.

EMMELINE PANKHURST:—In the days to come mothers will tell their children how a small but a great-souled nation fought to the death against overwhelming odds and sacrificed all things to save the world from an intolerable tyranny.

The story of the Belgian people's defence of Freedom will inspire countless generations yet unborn.

THE RT. HON. SYED AMEER ALI:—The country devastated, ancient seats of learning rendered desolate, people driven from their homes for refuge in distant lands make the heart throb with infinite sorrow and pain.

SIR H. RIDER HAGGARD:—The desolation of Belgium is perhaps the most appalling world-wide since the working of the Netherlands by Alva. That iniquity was followed by the decay of Spain while, in the end, Holland recovered and grew great in freedom. It may well be that the eternal laws of justice shall work in such fashion that a like judgment will fall upon the proud head of Germany and that a like triumph awaits her victim.

SIR EDWARD RUSSELL:—Belgium passes into history a splendid paragon of ideal and agonised heroism—heroism for world-wide right as well as a heroism of patriotism—a heroism devoted to the purgation of power from the curse and blight of sinister aggression, of sanguinary rapine, of domineering usurpation.

THE RT. HON. AUGUSTINE BIRRELL:—Blood and tears are powerful ingredients in the manufacture of manhood, and it may well be that in due time, those who come after this blood-stained age will be able to see in the masterpieces of the new Flemish art and literature some traces of the heroic resolve and fierce determination to bear cruel misfortune we have witnessed with so much admiration.

LORD READING, LORD CHIEF JUSTICE OF ENGLAND:—Germany's attack upon Belgium is a tragedy in the history of human progress; it is a stab at the heart of civilisation. Fortunately Belgium has minimised the gravity of the blow to the human race by the moral grandeur she has attained under the leadership of her king.

SIR E. RAY LANKESTER:—I venture to render my homage to King Albert and his people as one who knows and loves the unconquerable spirit, the unswerving fidelity of the free and independent Belgian folk.

H. A. L. FISHER:—So long as a respect of right survives upon this planet it will be remembered that the king of a tiny nation once vindicated the public law of Europe against the brutal aggression of a mighty power knowing well that it would be for his heroic subject to sustain the first furies of the attack and to endure the certain cruelties of temporary conquest. It will be remembered that the capture of forts and cities, the defeats of armies, the murder of women and children, the burning of a cathedral and a library famous throughout the civilised world, neither weakened his resolution nor broke the spirit of his people, and that he and his fought on tenaciously to the end, saving the honour and liberties of Europe by their act of desperate and inspired valour.

SIR NORMAN LOCKYER:—The story of the bravery which King Albert and his nation have shown in sacrificing everything rather than honour will be handed down from generation to generation, a monument to a great people.

ROMAIN ROLLAND:—Belgium has just written an Epic, the echoes of which will resound through the ages.

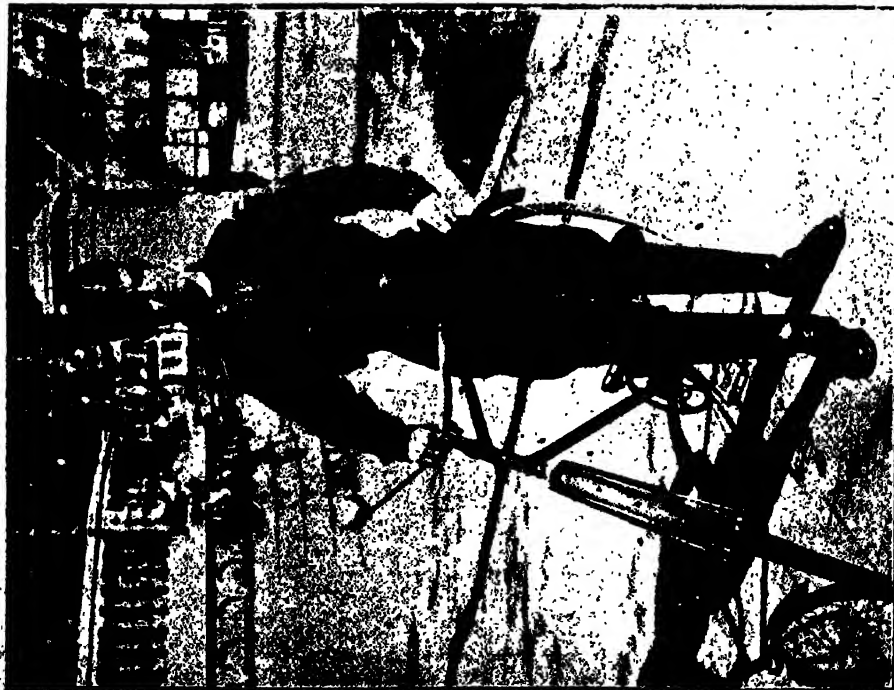
ANATOLE FRANCE:—Not in vain will Albert and Belgium in arms have made Liege the Thermopylae of European civilisation. They have broken the rush of the barbarians, contributed largely to the victory of our Allies, and ensured the triumph of right and liberty.

HALL CAINE:—No more woeful and terrible spectacle of a country in utter desolation ever came from earthquake, eruption or other convulsion of Nature in her wrath than has been produced in Belgium by the hand of man. A complete nation is in ruin. A whole country is in ashes. An entire people are destitute, homeless and on the roads. A little Kingdom, dedicated to liberty, has "kept the pledge and died for it."

THE EARL OF ROSEBURY:—Not the resistance at Thermopylae to the millions of Xerxes was more splendid, and Thermopylae only involved the sacrifice of a handful of men, while this has cost a country and a nation.

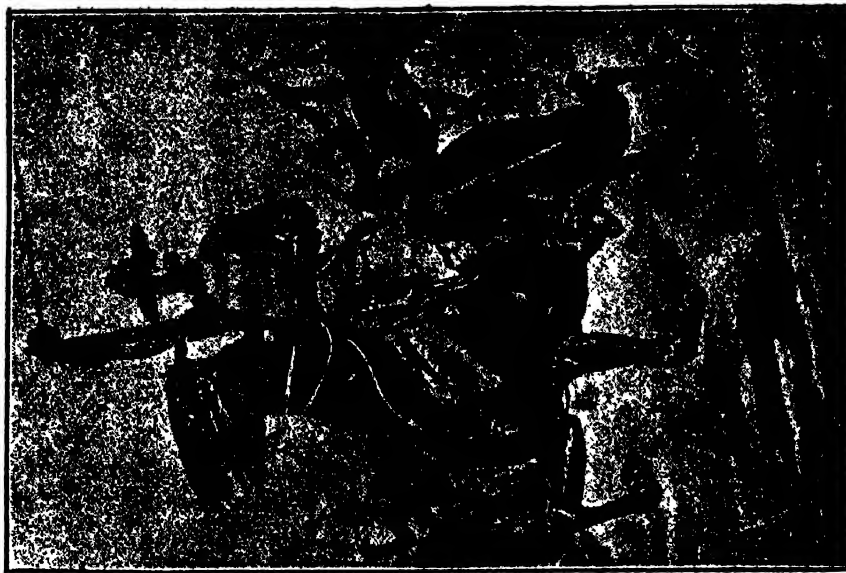
There have been three Kings of the Belgians. The first, Leopold, steered the little kingdom with exquisite skill through dangers from within and from without until he was hailed as the Nestor of Europe. The second energetically sustained and developed the commerce and manufactures of his realm with extraordinary success. But the third, Albert, has already eclipsed his predecessors and ranks with William the Silent, the indomitable champion of the Low Countries.

SIR SIDNEY LEE:—The King of the Belgians and his brave army have set an example which lends humanity a new glory. Their heroic resistance to the wholly unmerited wrongs, which brute strength has forced upon them, has shed fresh radiance on the history of the civilised world. In spite of the cruel suffering which the ruthless enemy has sown broadcast through the land, in spite of all the waste and desolation which German soldiers have inflicted without pity or remorse, Belgium, its ruler and its people, may find hope and consolation in the knowledge that the justice of their cause is recognised wherever truth and right prevail, and that the honour of all honourable men is pledged to secure for them due reparation of their unconscionable wrongs.



JOSEPH L. LEYSSEN : THE BELGIAN BOY SCOUT.

What this heroic Belgian Boy Scout, Joseph Luis Leyssen, has been promoted and decorated for will take a lot of beating. Single handed he is reported to have captured near Liege two German engineers, one Uhlan and two spies, disguised as priests. He is also said to have fought in five actions firing 500 shots with his automatic pistol and has made daring bicycle rides with despatches. — *Illustrated London News*.



SIR ROBERT BADEN-POWELL.

The Founder of the Boy Scout Movement.



THE BENGAL FLOATING HOSPITAL.

It is extremely regrettable that the *Bengales* foundered on the 17th May. But Bengal is not disheartened and the enthusiasm for volunteering help has in no way abated since the mishap.

SAINTS SUNDARAR, KANNAPPA, KARAIKAL AMMAI AND THIRUVALLUVAR

BY MR. M. S. POORNALINGAM PILLAI, B.A., L.T.*

SUNDARAR.

FROM slavery to fellowship with God was the progress made by this saint in the course of his life. Living at a comparatively peaceful time, he was the first hagiographer and made a catalogue of saints in the Tamil land, which formed the basis for Sekkilar's great legendary history of Periyapuranam.

Born of Sadaiyanar and Isai Juaniyar in an Adhisaiva family at Thirunavalur, this handsome Brahmin youth attracted the attention of Prince Narasinga and was brought up in the palace. He received the education appropriate to his birth, and when the time arrived for his casting off the Brahmacharihood, his parents were anxious to establish him as a Grahasta and proposed the hand of his kinsman's daughter at Puttur. The parties fell in with it, and the bridegroom rode to the house of his spouse for the celebration. At this juncture an aged Brahmin appeared on the scene and claimed Sundarar as his slave. The bride's father, Sadangali Sivacharyar, and all those assembled at the pandal were lost in wonder and amazement. It was finally settled that the matter should be laid before a Panchayat of Brahmins at Thiruvannainallur, the home of the claimant, and that they should abide by their decision. The Panchayet examined the original deed of slavery and pronounced their judgment in favour of the crone and asked the latter where he resided in that village and what he owned there. The arbitrators and the slave-declared youth followed the old man to the temple of Thiru Arul Thurai, and saw him no more. Then it occurred to the bondsman that the vanished was his lord Siva, and he fell on his knees and prayed. He was called "Vanthondan" or staunch servant and was inspired to sing songs of praise to his Lord as a madman. Hence the opening word "pittha" of his first hymn at Thiruvannainallur. Many a slip betwixt the cup and the lip. The marriage fell through, and the bridegroom turned a pilgrim. His pilgrimage extended over the three southern kingdoms, and the three kings became his friends. It is unnecessary to detail the places visited by him. After going to Perur* in the Kongu country, he was

directed to Thiru Arur, which became his headquarters. At this place he gained the status of *fellowship* with God and was popular as God's fellow. During his visits to the temple of Vanmekanathar, he came across a blooming bride and devotee Paravayar. Wiving goes by destiny. They met and were made one by Divine Grace. Then he made the versified catalogue of God's servants and passed his days in wedded bliss.

His purveyor was Kundaiyoor Kilavar, a Saiva devotee, and the Paddy Miracle was enacted on his behalf. The saint was invited to Nattiyatthankudi by Kotpuli Nayanar and was offered his two daughters, Singadiar and Vanappakayar. He looked on them as his children and thanked their father for his gracious proffer. The devaram composed in that locality enshrines the good deed of the Nayanar, and refers to its author as 'Singadiappan.' Want of money was his recurring complaint, and he was provided with 'golden bricks' at Thiru-Pugalur. His hymn for Arisirkarai Putthur contains his eulogy on Pugal-thunai Nayanar. The Thiruvanaikka devaram embodies the legend of the loss of the Chola king's jewel in the Kaveri, which afterwards adorned the crown of the local deity. At Thirupachil Asramam, he had gold heaps, and at Thiru Pandi Kodumudi he sang the famous Namasivayapadigam. Then occurred the River and Tank Miracle. The impecunious saint had a gift of 12,000 gold coins at Thiru Muthu Kuntram. These coins were thrown into the Mani Mutham and picked up in the sacred tank at Thiru Arur. Hence the proverbial expression applied humorously to a vain searcher of things lost; 'Attilé, pottu kulattilé thedukirathu.' At Thirukurukavur he had the dower of food and water, and at Thirukacchur, plenty of food, when he was exhausted with his travels. At Kalahasti he worshipped the image of St. Kannappar in the temple and arrived at last at the littoral shrine of Thiruvottiyur.

Next to Thiru Arur, Thiruvottiyur was for a time the important scene of his divine operations. "Magiladi Sevai" is one of the most crowded festivals at the sea-side shrine. The saint married Sangiliar, a Vellala girl of Nairukilar, under a vow that he would not part from her. After a few months of wedded life, the thoughts of the

* Also known as Southern Kailas, Pippil Araniyam, and Chidambaram West.

devotee turned towards Arur; and when he left, the place, both his eyes became blind. Yet he persisted in his way home. He had a walking stick at Thiruvempakkam; his left eye recovered its power of seeing at Thiru Ekambam; his body had its freedom from disease at Thirutthurutti; and he got back his right eyesight at Arur. He was once more the handsome Sundarar, and the bigamous Brahmin desired to be re-united to his first wife, Paravaiyar, who was sulky for his separation and had refused all mediation till the local deity pacified her. They became one as before. The episode of the heroic Kali-Kama Nayanar is interesting enough, and the revivifying of his corpse was one of his great miracles.

The saint's memorable friendship with Cheraman Perumal, his visits to the temples in the three kingdoms in company with him, his grand reception in the Chera capital, his miracle of rescuing a child from the mouth of a crocodile, and his passing away to Kailas from Thiru Vanchaikalam in fellowship with him are the other interesting incidents of his later life. * * *

As regards his age, the only internal evidences are the references to king Narasinga in padigam 17, to the ancient patron of poets, Pari's munificent gifts in padigam 34, and to the Pallava king Kadava and other Nayanmars, and it is guessed that he lived in the ninth century.

The hymns of our saint number but one hundred. Of these about fifteen are most popular. The opening hymn at Thiruvennianallur, the versified catalogues of saints and of shrines are in the mouths of Saiva devotees. The hymn entitled *Thiru Mala Padi* is sung in every marriage pandal. There are eight lyrics in connection with Thiru Arur, and each of them is noted for its melody, pathos and tenderness. The two hymns composed at Thiru Ottiyur are autobiographical. Like Tiru Jnana Sambandha, Sundarar takes the occasion in the eleventh stanza of each hymn to praise his own proficiency as a Tamil poet and condemns heresy in vehement words—the Shamanar and the Sakkiar alike. Ravana is not forgotten by either of them for his valour, for his suffering, or for his Githa that won Divine Grace. Like him he extols the Dance of Siva and his musical instruments and makes large use of *pans* or ragas. Some of the Nayanars—both predecessors and contemporaries—are eulogised by our saint for their exemplary *bhakti*. All his hymns show that the saint was a good student of the classics of the Sangam period—Kurral, Naladi, etc., (vide hymns

2,14); and one effect of his reading them was his espousing the cause of non-killing (hymn 44). The burden of his songs is release from the clutches of winsome women, freedom from the bonds of birth, and absorption into the Infinite Sivam: "Like tuneful Tamil art thou, like taste in ripened fruits art thou, Like iris in eyes art thou, like light in darkness dense art thou, Lest woes befall the minds of thy servants devout on earth, Dost Thou of Kurukavur water-girt drive them in air" (hymn 29, st. 6).

KANNAPPA.

IN the roll of bhaktas there is none equal to Saint Kannappa in the intensity and depth of his devotion to God. In the two decads of *Thiruk-kot-thumbi*, stanza 4, and *Thirut thol-nokkam* stanza 3, Saint Manickavachakar praises the hunter's unsurpassed love manifested by his foot wearing brogues applied to the image when he addressed himself to pluck out his second eye, by his mouth serving as a vessel for holding 'Thirumanjanam,' and by his offer of the boar's flesh cooked and tasted by him to the lonely and hungry deity. In stanza 4 of the hymn composed in praise of Sri Kalahasti, Saint Jnana Sambandha refers to the man of hunt carrying water in his mouth for the ablution of the godhead and to his rare feat of plucking out his eyes with his fierce arrow and applying them to the bleeding Divine image without a thought of self for a moment. This heroic act of unbounded devotion has immortalised him as 'Kannappa.'

To attain bliss or moksha one pursues different paths—Sariya, Kiriya, Jana and Yoga. Rishis spend years in Yogic practices to achieve their object. The various processes of self-mortification, control of breath, concentration of mind, resignation, etc., are gone through by saints and sages. But the short cut to that goal was taken by the hunter saint who, by his selfless love, fervid devotion and practical piety, won the grace of God in a week and showed to the world abroad that true bhakti does not need shoals of book lore or rolls of ritual and that if the heart be in the right place and properly polarised, nothing is beyond its power or accomplishment. He sang no hymns, or burst into no lyrics. His life was a song and his devotion was lyrical. His image stands at the right hand of the presiding deity in the temple at Kalahasti and is worshipped by every pilgrim who goes thither.

In the town of Udupur near Kalahasti there lived a prince of hunters by name Nagan. Childless for a long time, he prayed night and day to the mountain deity and he was blessed with a babe called Thihnan, because it was felt thick when the fond father took it into his hands. As became a prince of the hunting tribe, he turned out a toxophilite and pursued game. One day his eyes lighted upon a boar that had escaped the hunters and their toils, and he gave it a long chase. At last he overtook it and plunged his spear into it. His two followers, Nanani and Kadan, admired the valour of their master and prayed for a relish of the flesh of the animal transfixed, because they had been quite done up and were hungry. Accordingly all of them took their way to the Golden Mugali that flowed fast by, and when they arrived on the bank of the river, they unburdened their load of the slain boar. Then Nanani pointed to the hill on the opposite bank and said that they could worship the mountain god, Kudumi Thevar. The Nimrod prince fell in with the suggestion, and accompanying his Adam, got up the hill. As he ascended, his latent love gushed forth, and on reaching the sacred precincts, he embraced the image with all his might and main, pitied its sequestration, longed to feed it with the meat prepared with honey on the fire kindled by Kadan, played the connoisseur with it and took it up the hill, carrying river water in his mouth, and flowers on his head. He kicked away with his brogue the fading flowers on the head of the image set there by the Brahmin devotee Sivakosariar and discharged the contents of his mouth for abishekam. He set the honeyed meat before it and importuned it to partake of the proffer. It grew dark, and the hunter devotee stood there watching all night. This was repeated day after day, and it provoked the anger of the Brahmin, to whom the offer of meat in a sacred place was a pollution. The irate ritualist asked of his deity if that act of uncleanness was acceptable to him. To appease him and to prove the depth and fervour of the prince's love and devotion to him, he made one of his eyes bleed and told him to lie in ambush behind the image. The hunter arrived and saw the bleeding eye. His heart melted and he cast about for simples. They were of no use, and the only effective cure lay in plucking out his own right eye and applying it to that of the image. Immediately the flow of blood ceased, and the witness in the hiding admired his devotion. Still he tempted the deity to have his left eye

bleed with a view to try once more the love of the devotee. The deity did so, and the hunter prince felt ruth. He knew the art of healing. Being one eye blind, he set the brogued foot of his on to the bleeding eye and attempted to pluck out his own remaining eye to place it on where his foot lay. The presiding deity of the locality who knew the depth and sincerity of his love and devotion, drew him back crying 'Stop, Kannappa.' 'You shall stand by me in my house.' The saintly hunter obtained Divine Grace and was canonised by the worshipping posterity. The admiration of Jnana Sivakosariar knew no bounds, and he was inwardly convinced that the Grace of God could be sooner won by a loving heart than by a praying head.

KARAIKAL AMMAI.

KARAIKAL, a French seaport town near Negapatam, is renowned as the birthplace of Punithavathiyar, daughter of Danadatta, a wealthy merchant of the locality. The nomen of endearment was bestowed on her by the Lord himself, and posterity has chosen to call her the 'mother' or 'lady' of Karaikal, in commemoration of her intense love to God and her self-sacrifice to reach the Divine Foot.

In her early years Punithavathiyar showed her instinctive love of God and devoted her time to His Service.

Ever since I learnt to lisp after my birth

My love to Thee increased, I reached Thy Foot.

On her attaining puberty, her parents gave her in marriage to a prosperous merchant, Paramadattan, of Negapatam. The couple lived together happily at Karaikal, the father-in-law having assigned a house and lands there to his daughter. One day a Saiva Sannyasi broke upon their conjugal harmony, when he asked for food. The rice was ready, but not the curry stuffs. To please the devotee she served him with rice and one of the two mango fruits sent to her by her husband. Scarcely had the bhakta left her when her partner came home and sat for dinner. The sweet lady attended on him and gave him a mango fruit for a dessert. It tasted so sweet that he wanted the second also. Like Desdemona, she dared not speak the truth at once but prayed to God to tide her over the difficulty. The Unseen Helper came to her rescue and placed a fruit in her hands. This was so exceedingly luscious and delicious that he thought it was not a product of the earth. When he pressed her to tell him how she got it, the modest lady averred that it was a

God-send in answer to her prayer when she did not know how to account to her lord for the absence of 'one of the two mango fruits. Her lord did not take her word in earnest but tested her sincerity by asking her to produce another divine fruit. 'More' things are wrought by prayer than this world dreams of.' Another fruit also soon appeared on her hands, which she made over to her trying comrade and companion. This fruit vanished the moment he grasped it, and Paramadatta was lost in wonder. He took his wife as more than human and abjured her company and went abroad. He arrived at a Pandyan emporium, with all his wealth settled there for his business, and took to wife a girl of his own caste. They were blessed with a daughter, and the babe was named after his first wife Punithavathi. The merchant's first love having heard about his second marriage and settlement, she repaired thither in a palanquin with her relations and announced her arrival to her husband. It was a great surprise to him; and though he lost his wits for the nonce, he soon gathered them and took his wife and child and knelt at her feet with them. The kinsmen of Punithavathiyar were nonplussed at the husband's worship of his wife. Then the story was told in all detail, and the divine halo around her became visible to them also. Immediately the dame prayed for the loss of her beauty and her flesh and for her transformation into a grim demoness. She had her wish by the grace of God, and, in her metamorphosed state, stood by God ever praying. She felt inspired to sing, and her maiden lyric, *Arputha Anthathi*, is redolent of love and pathos. The god-possessed is world-bereft. The silver mount engrossed her attention, and she traversed the sacred region on her head. Uma saw her first, and asked her Lord who she was. He called her 'Mother,' and she addressed Him as 'Father.' She was told to go to Thiru Alamkadu, or 'The Sacred Banyan Forest,' to witness Him dancing his *Ananda thandavam*, and had her boon of deathlessness granted to her. In Palayanur, which was the old name of the forest-town, she lived thereafter and sang many a song, and was enamoured of the Divine Dance in the burning ghat.

The story of this pious lady has many a lesson to teach her sisters of the present day. True devotion to God, hospitality to bhaktas, attachment to the husband, renunciation of personal adornment by women when alone, unceasing prayer for selflessness, strict adherence to truth, reliance on God's mercy are some of them.

Apart from her faith, her philosophy is but meagre. God is our creator, preserver, and destroyer. He is all wise. To reach His Foot is the goal of human ambition. Birth is a bond and a fruit of Karma. The twofold Karma snaps at the sight of the Lord. He is visible to Seers. He is Light unto hearts of Love. He is Truth and Ejaman and Ashtamurthi. He takes the form the devotee imagines, and love and one-mind please him best and win His Grace.

"Tis Isa's Grace that rules the world,

'Tis Isa's Grace that destroys birth,

'Tis by His Grace I look at truth,

Let me be merged e'er in that Truth."

—so sang the lady of Karaikal.

As regards her age there is considerable doubt and uncertainty hanging over the question. According to Sekkilar, the saints Jnana Sambardha and Appar would not tread on the classic ground of Thiru Alamkadu for fear of polluting it, seeing that it had been traversed by the lady on her head. Though the three hymns of the lady have been styled 'Mootha Devaram,' the peculiar stanzaic sequence, the use of the same word at the end of one stanza and at the beginning of the succeeding one, 'the anthathi-thodar,' which is said to be alien to the Tamil verse and to have been introduced into it at a later time, militates against the view that the Mother of Karaikal lived long prior to the earliest Devara hymners so as to deserve a reverential mention by them. The metrical test, if it is to be accepted as a determining factor, needs to be supplemented by other evidence of an historical nature in order to prove the modernity of the demon-poetess:

"My Father own so sweet to me, my Lord

Him I treasured sweet in my heart always,

Him as my Lord I owned, and owning him

My heart rejoiced. What is then rare to me?"

THIRUVALLUVAR.

HE name of the Saint has been lost for ever. He is known by the name of his caste. His memory is kept green by his single masterpiece, which, like the author, bears no name. The 'Kural' is the name of the short metre of the couplets that compose the poem.

The great moralist was a Valluva by birth and the last of a progeny of seven. A Valluva was then, as he is now, a priest, doctor, and astrologer, and his learning commanded respect as it does in our day. The poet lived by weaving in the city of peacocks or Mylapore. His caste was no barrier to him. He enjoyed the society of the high and the low. His one true friend was

Elelasingan, a fisherman and owner of a small vessel. He married Vasuki, a Vellala girl and a pattern of a wife. Her death, which elicited her husband's eulogy,

O thou loving one, O sweet'ner of my food,
O wife who ne'er transgressed my word,
Who didst chafe my feet, rising first and sleeping last,

O when will these eyes know sleep again?

severed him from worldly pursuits and turned him to a life of religious contemplation. How long he lived is not known, though Mr. Kanagasabai Pillai has established when he lived, i.e., in the latter half of the first century of the Christian era. When he died, his corpse became the food of crows outside his natal city, a fact borne out by every current legend and tradition. Posterity appreciated his genius and his virtues and has canonised him. Quite contrary to the oft-quoted adage, 'no prophet is honoured in his own country,' the saint and sage is worshipped in a suburban palmy grove which attracts hosts of visitors every day.

The Kurral is a monumental work. It is a universal moral code. It has won the admiration of the Frenchman, the German, the Italian, and the Englishman. It is a perfect mosaic in itself, and appeals to the heart of man forthwith. It is appropriated by the Jain and the Saiva as much as by the Aryan of the East and the West. To the Tamilian it is a Veda, pure and simple.

The poem comprises 133 chapters, with ten couplets to each chapter. The couplet is akin to the sloka: it is terse and concise. It is an apple of gold in a network of silver. It is a 'semi-perforated mustard seed with the contents of the seven seas.' It is *multum in parvo*: it has infinite riches in a little room. It proves the richness and power of the Tamil language even one thousand and eight hundred years ago.

The chapters of the book are distributed as follows:—The first four are devoted to God, Rain, Asceticism and Virtue, and form the prelude to the poem. They are followed by thirty-four on virtue both domestic and ascetic, by seventy on wealth or political economy, and by twenty-five on love, both clandestine and wedded. The three great *puruṣarthas* of life, therefore, form their subject-matter.

The saint was a monotheist, a monarchy man, and a monogamist. He believed in a God, the possessor of eight attributes, the Alpha of the world, the destroyer of *karma*, the supremely wise, the nullifier of the senses, the one beyond compare, the Sea of Good, and the lord of neither

desire nor aversion. His ideal householder is a friend of the living as well as of the dead. He should be affectionate, hospitable, grateful, patient and forbearing. His ideal ascetic aims at divine grace by showing mercy to animals, by his refraining from killing and eating flesh, and contemning the wolf in sheep's clothing, making havoc of the credulous and gullible humanity. The virtues of a king, the characteristics of a ministry, and the essentials of a polity are described in fifty-six chapters, which demonstrate his rooted faith in a good government. An appendix of fourteen chapters gives the essence of morality, positive and negative, and makes up a miniature moral code. The monogamist is seen in his preference to wedded life and conjugal bliss and in his condemnation of uxoriousness and whoredom, and also in his describing unwedded love or the *Gandharva* union as leading to the consummation of a happy marital life.

The poet's theology is but natural. His doctrine of the unity of the Godhead has been touched on. He believed in *karma*, and in the 'sea of sevenfold births,' which to cross constitutes the sole work of life. Fate is a governor of human conduct, but the fate of the saint is but providence or the prescient power. To reach His foot is the *summum bonum* of human existence.

Cling to that which He to whom
Nought clings, hath bid thee cling,
And cling to that bond to free thyself,
From every clinging thing.

As regards his philosophy, it is more or less practical, utilitarian, and humanitarian. Life is but awakening, and death only sleep. The perfection of life is an end in itself. Righteousness is a prime requisite. Virtue in the abstract is to be spotless in mind and in the concrete to do what ought to be done. Pleasure is what flows from virtue, and Truth signifies absence of all evil-taint. It is no falsehood if a word or an act injures none but produces the greatest happiness of the greatest number. The life of a drone is deprecated. Mendicancy and its dread take two whole chapters. 'Even thin gruel is ambrosia to him who has earned it by his labour.' A life of persevering industry as agriculture is recommended, as it promotes self-respect and independence. Love is the stuff of life as bread supports the body. The body is the seat of life, but the body which is not the seat of love is but skin and bone. 'He alone lives who loves,' and 'he dies who does what is not meet.' It is more blessed to give than to receive, and whatever is given to other than the needy is given by way of recom-

pense. To remember the good done is a virtue, but to forget the evil inflicted is more virtuous, and to do good for evil is superlative excellence.

What fruit doth your perfection yield you, say,

Unless to men who work you ill you good repay.

It is a passport to heaven to do a good action, instead of indulging in merely formal rites and ceremonies. Ten thousand rich oblations and rare libations are of no use if the heart is not rightly attuned, nor kept pure.

Outward purity water will bestow,
Inward purity from truth alone will flow.

Drunkenness and gambling taint and corrupt the mind as envy, covetousness, and backbiting.

Give me that man

That is not passion's slave and I will wear him
In my heart's core, aye, in my heart of heart.

Anger is short madness, and to suppress it where you can exercise it freely is praiseworthy. It is better to nip it in the bud, as else it destroys all harmony. Birth is nothing, and action everything. Every man makes his own status.

All men that live are one in circumstance 'of birth,
Diversities of works give each his special worth.

Above all, to know the world aright and to know how to move with it in harmony—these are the practical fruits of education, while the highest culture lies in knowing God and in walking with Him for ever.

The imprimatur of the Kurral savours of a poetic myth, and the tale of the Academy of Madura ceasing to exist in connection with the approval of the great ethical code is more romantic than true. Whether the saint took his way to the southern capital for the purpose is more than doubtful, and the story of his Pariah origin coined with a view to add to the glory of his later achievement is a figment of the hallowing imagination. As a treatise on morals, it has no doubt surpassed all its predecessors in the line and has no peer in the roll of the past nineteen centuries.

The poem has twelve commentaries, of which Parimelalagar's is in print and that of Ilampuranar is struggling to emerge into the light of day. In the absence of other commentaries Parimelalagar's is widely read, though, in the opinion of some critical Tamil scholars, his commentary imports into couplets what their language does not guarantee, and interprets them in a way and in a manner more in accord with the Brahminic cult than in consonance with the Dravidian system.

It is a singular vice of human nature that it does not easily see originality in a bard. Every attempt is made consciously or unconsciously to detract from his intrinsic merit. The Christian opinion that the high morality of the Kurral is due

to the St. Thome missionary preaching the Sermon of the Mount on the surf-beaten shores of Mylapore. The Aryan fancies that the low caste Valluvar had his ears open to the expositions in camera of the Sanskrit Vedas, Dharmasastras, the Upanishads and the great epics in the first century and merely embodied the essence of their teachings in the compact sloka-like couplet form. A recent critic has gone to the length of adding that the first part of the didactic poem was probably based upon the works of Manu, the second upon Sanakiam and Kamandakam, and the third upon the Vatsyayana, etc., in Sanskrit, and that the poet made an eclecticism of the whole and presented the same minus the exaltation of the Brahmin which they all vaunt. But the Tamilian points to its author as a bard of man as man, not as one of a clan or sect.

The influence of the Kurral on all the poems of old is undoubted, and the editors of the great Jain epics in quite recent times have taken pains to point out passages in them which have either incorporated or are influenced by, or are parallel to couplets in the Kurral. There is no author of modern times of any repute whose poetry is not tinged by the *curioso felicitas* of its diction or by the epigrammatic form in which the high sentiments are expressed.

The Kurral has been included in the list of 'eighteen minor works' of the Sangam age, simply because it, like them, was meant to be conned by young men, being dressed in a short and simple indigenous metre lending, as it does, easily to memorizing and to reproduction without much ado.

A good prose rendering of these 'jewels five words long, stretched on the forefinger of all time' with the necessary exegetics has been published by Mr. Arunachala Kaviroyar of the Settur Zamindari, and the masses and the gentlemen of the day that have no taste or time for poetic reading will find it a useful handbook to the sage's great work which, according to Kavuniyar, an ancient Tamil bard and critic, is :

Sweet to the thought, sweet to the ear,
Sweet to the mouth, and which with tongue
Right eloquent, Thiruvalluvar set forth,
That we the way of good may know.

It is generally said that this *magnum opus* omits the most important Purushartham, Moksha. But the careful reader will find that it is not true. Thoughts on the way of Salvation are scattered throughout the work, and the single chapter on 'Meyyunarthal' is worth a library on the subject.

MYSORE is the largest Native State in South India next to the Nizam's Dominions and it is in direct relationship with the Supreme Government at Delhi. The word Mysore is derived from the Sanskrit Mahisha, (buffaloe) and "uru" (town or country) that is Buffaloe country. According to legendary lore Mahishāsura a buffaloe-headed monster in the country was slain by Ohamundu or Mahishāsura Mardani, who is the tutelary goddess of the ruling family and who is the consort of Siva. The area of the Mysore Province is 29,461 square miles, not inclusive of Bangalore, and it lies between 11°36' and 15°2' north latitude and 74°38' and 78°36' east longitude. It is bounded on the north-west by the Bombay Presidency, the south-west by Coorg and on the other sides by the Madras Presidency. The character of the country is an undulating table land, with extensive plains and valleys and hill ranges. The general elevation is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above sea-level. The highest hill in Mysore is 6,713 feet. In the Billigiri Ranga Hills there are many eminences from over 3,000 to 6,000 feet in elevation. There are several isolated peaks called droogs. The hilly region is termed the Malnad and is comparatively unhealthy and meagrely populated. The plains and valleys portion is called the *Mailan* and is thickly populated and cultivated. Three great river systems drain the country, viz., the Tungabhadra or Kistna (north), the Cauvery (south), and the Pennar, Ponnayaur and Palar (east). These rivers are not navigable, but are very useful for irrigation purposes, while there are numerous waterfalls, the most famous of which are the Gersoppa falls. The Kistna, Cauvery and the three other rivers mentioned flow into the Bay of Bengal. The water of the Gersoppa falls, in the extreme north-west, flow into the Arabian Sea. There are no natural lakes in Mysore, but there are immense artificial reservoirs and about 30,000 tanks which are essential for irrigation. The Kamambadi reservoir, about which there has been considerable opposition on the part of the ryots in the Madras Districts, whose lands are irrigated by the Cauvery, is the latest scheme of irrigation taken up by Mysore, and it is intended to build a reservoir capable of holding over 10,000 million cubic feet

of water. The arguments of the Madras ryots and those of the Mysore Government were submitted to a Board of Arbitration and with some modifications the Kamambadi Reservoir will soon be completed.

Minerals:—Granites and granitic gneisses traversed by Schistose rocks form three distinct bands called the Shimoga and Chiknayagaiballi, and Kolar bands consisting of hornblende rocks usually Schistose and well defined layers of ferruginous quartz. Near Sivasamudram is a rock containing 50 per cent. of iron. Pegmatite, aplite and other forms of granitic materials are prevalent. Sir Roper Lethbridge says:—"The gold-bearing area in Mysore is of immense extent and in character has been compared with the most productive gold fields of the Transvaal, of Australia and America both for richness and depth. The Kolar gold fields have yielded an enormous output of the precious metal and there is still abundance of gold in the province."

The flora of the State is rich and abundant and the most valuable tree in Mysore is the Sandal, which, of late years, has suffered from spike disease. The forests yield magnificent timber from teak to the common timbers of South India.

Fruit trees of many varieties and vegetables of all kinds take kindly to the soil, and English vegetables are cultivated with success, while English flowers may be seen all the year round.

The fauna is equally diverse and numerous, from the lordly elephant, herds of which are captured in keddahs—some times to make a Viceroy's holiday—to rats and mice and such small deer. Birds are numerous as are crocodiles, snakes and other creatures of the jungle. The *lac* insect propagates largely.

The climate is genial and pleasant nearly all the year round. Sir Roper Lethbridge says: "The climate of Bangalore and of all the uplands of the Mysore State is more agreeable to the unacclimatized European constitution than almost any other part of India during the winter months." The rainy season begins in June and continues till the middle of November, there being comparatively little rain during August and September. March to May are the hot months. From November 15th to February makes the cold season, during which time the temperature fluctuates from 51° to 80°. In the hot months the tem-

* This is the third of the series of articles on "Native States" that have been appearing in *The Indian Review*

perature is from 61° to 96°. The rainfall varies considerably being very heavy in the Malnad and Western ghats; the average being 20 to 40 inches for the whole of Mysore.

Population.—The population numbers something over 5,700,000; of which 92 per cent. are Hindus. Kannada or Kanarese is the distinctive language of Mysore, Telugu being used by 15 per cent., Tamil by 4 per cent. and Hindustani 4·8 per cent. The cultivating class are called Vokkaligars and are the most numerous, the Lingayets being next. The Holeys are more or less low caste. There are numerous subdivisions and distinctions in these three divisions.

Religion.—According to religion the Hindus lead the way, with 92 per cent. followed, a very long way behind, by the followers of Islam about 6 per cent. and then by Christians, Annimists and Jains. The latest Census returns show an increase among Christians and Islamists who belong to the proselytising religions. The Lingayet, though Hindu, reject the authority of the Brahmins and the inspiration of the Vedas. Brahmins are of four sects, Madhvas, Shrivaisnavas, Smartas and Bhagavattas. The Sunnies predominate among the Mahommedans.

Missionary Enterprise.—The first Christian Church was built by the Roman Catholics in 1400 A.D. though the Dominicans appear to have introduced Christianity 75 years earlier. The famous Abbe Dubois laboured in Mysore for 22 years. The London Missionary Society began in 1800 and translated the Bible into the vernacular, and they were the pioneers of native female education. The Wesleyan Mission began in 1822 in Tamil, and in Kanarese in 1855. The Church of England has an S. P. G. Native Mission at Bangalore, which was taken over from the Danish Lutheran Mission in 1826—that Mission having entered on their work prior to 1820. The Church of England Zenana Mission is at work and among other Christian agencies are the American M. Episcopal, the Leipzig, Lutheran and the Small Faith, the German Mission and the Salvation Army. This last is taking up industrial work also.

Agricultural and Industrial.—The bulk of the population is engaged in agriculture. The staple foodgrains are ragi (*Eleusine coracana*), rice, cholum (*Sorghum vulgare*), gram, millets and pulses. Other crops are oilseeds, cotton, san-hemp, tobacco and condiments. There is a director of agriculture, and well organised agricultural and economic committees, farms, silk farms, co-operative

credit societies, cattle breeding farms and stud farms. Every effort is being made to improve agricultural conditions, the latest departure being an Economic Journal published under Government auspices, as a tentative measure.

Industrially also the Government is exerting its utmost powers. Technical and industrial schools, cotton and silk factories and weaving establishments are doing good work. Cordage, tape, carpets, jewellery, smelting and iron foundries, steel manufacture, brass and copper utensils, pottery, decorative sculpture, coffee works, cotton ginning, sugar factories, brick and tile factories, oil mills, manganese and gold mining, etc., employ quite a large portion of the population. Electric power generated at the Cauvery Falls, nearly 100 miles away, works the machinery in the mines, supplies illumination and is destined to extend industrial operations.

Trades and Commerce.—The exports are greater than the imports. The latter are mainly grain, pulse, piece-goods, tobacco, cotton thread, iron, steel, machinery, etc. The exports are principally gold, manganese, asbestos, grain and pulse, betel leaf, areca nuts, copra, sandalwood, and timber. There are facilities for trade except on the West Coast side where communications require to be improved.

Communication is chiefly by railways, the Madras and Southern Mahratta and the State Railways worked by the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company aggregating 400 miles and odd, nearly ten of which are broad gauge the remainder being on the metre. A district board railway from Bowringpet to Kolar was recently opened, and other schemes are in contemplation. A railway to Mangalore is a pressing need.

Antiquities.—The State maintains an archeological department and much valuable information relating to the Edicts of Asoka and to several dynasties of ancient and modern Hindu kings, found in the shape of inscriptions, cones, prehistoric stone cromlechs and kistvaens, sculptured bas-relief, etc., have been carefully preserved, interpreted and published. Jain temples in Dravidian architecture, colossal monoliths, notably the Sravana Belgola, hoary Hindu temples at Seringapatam, Chamundi, Somnathpur, Belur, a Hindu bridge at Seringapatam, the Mahommedan mosques at Sira, the mausoleum of Hyder and the Darya Daulat are all, among other sights, worth a visit and careful study.

THE WOMEN OF THE CLASSICS

BY HANNAH S. HENSMAN.

The heroine of the old Classical Epics have always held some charm for us, and in our mental vision we have often woven fancies around them, but all told we know very little of them. Hence the author of the book "The Women of the Classics," in bringing them together and placing them before us each one with her history, her life and character skilfully interwoven with the local environment of the age she lived in, has fulfilled our desire to know more about them and to find a suitable niche in our imaginations for them.

The grouping of the characters is helpful as it makes clear to us the development of the moral and religious thought of the different eras. Three distinct ages can be traced: first, the age of Homer where civilization and religion are depicted in the two great Epics: the Iliad and the Odyssey; second, the great age of Greece, the age of the Dramatists, when Æschylus and Sophocles recast the Homeric themes, clothing them with the passions and thoughts of their own day, and lastly, the transition period which seems to have influenced the writings of Euripides to a great extent, as is then we see the beginning of a new spirit and the rise of a new era.

In the first group we are taken into a world of beings beyond the pale of ordinary humanity. In the Iliad the heroes and heroines are the sons and daughters of the gods, "colossal figures hovering, as it were, about the base of Mount Olympus, and driven this way and that in the surge of Olympian quarrels." They are entirely in the hands of the gods, and all their actions are brought about and influenced by the deities themselves, so that we can but admire them from a distance only and may not judge them by our standards. From the Iliad the author takes up and describes two of the most important women. First, Helen of Troy, 'the fairest among women,' the ideal of physical loveliness, whose weakness brought about the ruin of nations and yet whose story Homer tells with such delicate beauty and grace that it calls for our pity even if it cannot command our admiration. Secondly, Andromache, the dear wife of Hector, the noblest prince of the Trojan heroes, the tender devotion of the noble pair, the grace, dignity, and fidelity of Andromache is emphasized in such a way as makes us think that Homer, "seems

impelled to create this type of gracious purity, vindicating wifely honour and motherly tenderness, and proving at the same time that if his race had a high ideal of beauty, it had also a profound regard for domestic ties."

Next, the author takes us to the Women of the Odyssey, the second great Epic of Homer. Though the adventures of Ulysses on his way home from the Trojan War bring us near the Iliad, yet the characterisation is far different. Now, we are brought down to the level of common humanity. The heroes and heroines are men and women of like natures and passions as ourselves with human virtues and human weaknesses. Odysseus is not admired for his physical beauty but because he is a *man*—a great and kind ruler, faithful to his wife, a good master and an honest friend. So in Penelope is revealed an ideal wife, wise, gentle, dignified, patient, unswerving in her faithfulness to her husband, a perfect 'Pativrata.' The love for home is the prevailing note in the poem. Odysseus struggles through a sea of trouble to win his way to his home, and Penelope besieged on all sides by ardent admirers struggles to keep the hearth sacred and pure for the return of her lord. The other figures Circe and Calypso, but serve to enhance the sweet womanliness of Penelope. The last of the Homeric women taken up by the author is "the peerless girl Nausicaa in Homer's group of immoral women," delicate as the fragrance of a flower, beautiful as the morning dew, dainty and light as the summer breeze, happy as a lark yet withal so strong and so human. As the author says: "She has served the poet's purpose in the Epic plan—to link the story with Penelope and to enhance her dignified maturity. She has served, too, in the strongest way to accentuate the chivalry and constancy of the hero. But in doing this, the tenderest care has been taken that she shall not be despoiled of her exquisite charm."

Next, we come to the age of the Dramatists in which we see that life has grown more complex, intellect has advanced, civilization has progressed, and the unquestioned belief in the reign of the gods is passing away but yet no new belief has been established. This is the transition period. The old blind faith is weakening but the moral law for that, *viz.*, reason is upheld with greater rigour and sacredness. Sin is punished, and that at once and relentlessly; a man may not escape the results of his sin. Thus in this strenuous life we

* The Women of the Classics, by Mary C. Sturgeon: George Harrap & Co., London.

see the women coming forward and grappling with the realities of life, women "resolute, purposeful, passionate—women of action as well as of feeling. Physical beauty they do possess as well as grace and charm. But the stress is not now laid merely on beauty and the gentler graces. It is laid rather on a combination of these qualities with strength of intellect and will, generous emotions and a soaring spirit." *Æschylus* felt these new influences strongly, and strongly represented them in his drama. Hence we see the women of his dramatic creation though taken from the Homeric legends yet are clothed with a zeal and a passion quite unknown to Homer. They act with clear purpose of aim and decisively. *Clytemnestra* is depicted as haughty and passionate, and as one who considered herself the instrument of Fate in dealing a just punishment; but there is one relieving trait. Her womanhood has been killed in her by her husband, who remorselessly sacrificed their dear beautiful daughter, *Sphigenia*, for the furtherance of his own ambition. Revenge, her own guilty passion and the giving of a free reign to an uncontrolled mind, resulted in her becoming a cruel murderess. In contrast to her stands her daughter, *Electra*, gentle and short, dutiful but transformed into a cruel woman by this act of her mother and now with but one motive for her existence—the dealing of first retribution for her father's murder. After the first fright which the contemplation of vengeance creates in her gentle nature, she is strong and gives strong counsel to her brother priestess to deal the avenging blow. They both plot and successfully carry through the punishment of their mother's sin, the murder of their mother which to them seems a just act. Thus we see the strong passions ruling their mind and working them up to passionate deed regardless of consequences. Again, in the next, two women that are placed before us we see, first, the pure virgin priestess, *Cassandra*, tossed about helplessly on the troubled sea of circumstances yet strong in her purity and devotion to her faith, while all that she holds sacred is crushing around her; and secondly, in the *History of To* we catch the first glimpse of a new religious belief. Hitherto Zeus has been depicted as just an avenger and a god who punished relentlessly the breaking of the moral law. But now we see a softer feeling pervading the atmosphere. Zeus is the protector of his people, he cares for them and will provide a better future for them through the progeny of *To*. Thus with this rising of a new

belief we pass from the stern atmosphere of *Æschylus* into the softer air of *Sophocles*, who sees life from all points and who hence produced "types more fully and completely human." Superstition and a belief in Fate is still supreme but it is relieved by more of the human element. Sinners are punished but into the punishment enters love and seeks to instigate the cruelty of it. The story of *Jocasta* is pitiable in the extreme. Led away by a blind belief in the oracle she commits a horrible crime, the giving up of her son to a cruel death. In after years when she is at the zenith of her happiness, her punishment is meted out to her tenfold, yea, a hundredfold, till in a very frenzy of despair she is led to take her life by her own hand. In the delineation of *Autauga* we read of a woman of high courage, who met a cruel death face to face and well for the sake of a promise to her brother to perform his funeral rites, a ceremony which was denied to him by his uncle as he had been declared a rebel and an outlaw. Yet she is very human, and as she leaves her love and all the lovely things of the world to be incarcerated alive in a rocky tomb, her strong faith in her gods seems to crash to atoms round her, but it is only for a moment. She soon recovers her splendid courage and passes from before us "in light at the last."

Now we turn to the women of *Euripides'* genius and here again we meet new elements. The poet strives to give to humanity "the fullest and most complete explanation possible to him." Intellect has grown more comprehensive and seeks to penetrate the mysteries of religious truths; the people as a people have developed; the position of women seems to require attention. *Euripides*, according to the author, "was profoundly interested in womanhood; he had studied feminine character with care and sympathy; and he felt and strove to reveal something of the evil which must result to the race when the woman is treated unjustly. Hence we have the *Troades*, a drama which looks steadily at the horrors of war from the standpoint of women who suffer because of it. Hence, too, there is an *Sphigenia* exerting all the energies of an acute mind to rescue her brother from imminent danger; a *Media*, transformed from a tender mother into a destroying Fury by Jason's infidelity; a *Phaedra* literally consumed by love which she will not declare; and "an *Alcestis*, type of enduring feminine courage, placed side by side with the weak amiability of *Admetus*." From this group of women I would fain call particular attention to the story of *Alcestis*. She is a lovely


woman and a beautiful character. For very love of her husband she eagerly gives up her life for his, and glories in death because it leaves him free. Side by side ever he looks weak and cowardly though he has all the noble qualities of a noble prince. Yet he is blinded in such a way that he consents to the sacrifice of this noble woman. But after it is over, a change passes over him and he becomes a real man and grovels in shame and remorse at his dishonourable conduct. It is then that the gods in a miraculous way return his wife safe and well to him, and thus we leave them in their exquisite bliss, each having attained perfection in each other's sight.

Then, we leave the magic shores of Greece, and in the last chapter are wafted to the coast of Italy. A description of Dido brings us to Virgil who went back to the old Homeric legend for inspiration of his theme, but whose treatment of it embodies a new spirit and represents a new society. The author herself may aptly describe the difference thus: "The *Æneid* was conceived with a deep and serious aim and conferred with infinite care. It did not originate as perhaps the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* may have done in the almost spontaneous

lays of wandering minstrel for the delight and honour of princely hosts. It was designed from the first to represent the divine birth of the Latin race, the gradual uprising of the Roman State, its long struggle with barbarism and its mission to civilize the Western World—all as the ordinance of the supreme deity." Hence a new type of hero is created in *Æneas*, a man with a "deeper estimate of life and some civic virtues which had not been evolved when the earlier heroes were created," and a man who has high virtues but is aware of his frailties and yet is "conscious of the divine within himself and of the high destiny to which he is called." Thus ends this interesting book. The author while availing our imaginations by these beautiful old legends beautifully told yet teaches us the mental and moral belief of the nations from whose literature she has taken them. The photogravures, of which there are 16, tend to make the stories more realistic as they leave a tangible impression of the fair women that have held our imaginations captive. Again, I repeat that we are most grateful to the author for her very charming and useful work "*The Women of the Classics*."

CURRENT EVENTS

BY RAJDUARI.

 THE chief historical event of the month was Italy's long anticipated alliance with the *Triple Entente*. Thus out of the six Great Powers of Europe four are now arrayed on one side, the side which is heroically fighting for the Liberty of the World, against two on the other side, a dual force which is the hideous personification of all that works for unmitigated tyranny and despotism, for galling bondage, and unquenchable domination. The one is the force of humanity and what makes for civilisation, while the other is the force of barbarism and cruelty. They are the forces of Ormazd or Light against those of Ahriman or Darkness. It is superfluous to observe that come what may, the ultimate triumph of this gigantic war must be for those who hold aloft the standard of Ormazd. In her person Italia reproduces the ancient and historical representation of *Civis Romanus*. The Roman Eagle holds sway wherever it flies. So Italy must conquer wherever she now plants her foot in the cause of Peace and Order. Strong as her other three Allies are and fought as they have with a gallantry, devotion,

and singleness of purpose which are the admiration of the civilised world, they are mightily pleased to see Italy joining hands with them in their herculean task to defeat the elements of chaos and confusion, of blood and iron, of chicanery and brutality unknown to modern civilisation. Fired by the spirit of pure patriotism, and recalling the grand historical scenes which won them their freedom from a galling thralldom in 1860, the Italians have marched from their frontiers with an elan and a confidence which promise to triumphantly achieve what they have set about. Once more those hoary Alps, where once trod the Carthaginians and the Gauls of old, and the big battalions of Napoleon a century ago, resound with the clash of arms, accompanied by the thunderous storms of the artillery of the twentieth century and the peals of the big war-drums and the braying of trumpets. The Eagle of old, perched on one of the distant summits, may perchance be musing awhile as to this new roar and din of war. Stretching its sharp eyes to the farthest point of the horizon, which overlooks the territory of its latest ravager, it may well conjure

mighty visions now on the point of realisation. The Italian Forces have begun well. Their preliminary skirmishes and brushings with their hereditary enemy are all in her favour. And it may be, therefore, deemed a good augury of the triumphs they are to achieve later on. But it is of no use forecasting the fortunes of the Italian star. Let us closely watch their onward course.

In Flanders the Anglo-French troops were busy hurling back masses after masses which the enemy placed hither and thither at this strategic place and that tactical point, at this valley of military value and that village. With efforts which are superhuman indeed the allied forces have with conspicuous gallantry repelled every attack by day and night. They have not repelled the cyclopean attacks of those bloody Huns. They have succeeded in pushing their front which means a retreat for the opponents. Neither poisonous gases nor still more poisonous explosives have deterred the courageous troops of a free civilisation from decimating the monster bloodhounds of the Teutonic tribe. The carnage is unparalleled. It has been counted by the thousands on each side, with this difference that the persons killed on the one side were treated as mere persons and no more; while the persons on the other side were treated as flesh of their flesh and bone of their bone. In other words, while the Allies have economised every soldier put to the front, the enemy has been a bloody prodigal in hurling masses of men only to be decimated without a purpose. When the military history of this war of wars comes to be recorded with the pen of the coldest steel, this inhuman sacrifice of men by the savage Germans will form, perhaps, the darkest and most inglorious page. We, contemporary chroniclers, are too near to record in black and white with perfect equanimity and impartiality the true significance of the bloody waste. But as far as the important occurrences of the four weeks could be recounted, it must be said that in Flanders the Allies have been able to push back the enemy with greater precision and energy than at any other time during the last ten months. The gain might have been greater and more decisive indeed, but it has unfortunately happened that the inadequacy of ammunition, explosive shells particularly, obliged them to desist from pursuing the enemy and driving him bag and baggage to his own frontier. But this deficiency is being rapidly supplied, so that the next month or two must witness that desired event.

In the Eastern theatre of the war the brave

Russians single-handed have carried on a most unequal and bloody struggle in Galicia. Their centre was pierced by an overwhelming mass, compelling retreat. But the piercing was not accomplished without an unprecedented loss of men and arms. How far the set-back has modified the Muscovite strategy has not been clearly discerned as yet, for the reports are most conflicting. But it may be taken for granted that both sides have sustained reverses of no ordinary character, and both seem to be firmly persuaded that the struggle must be pursued to the bitter end, come what may. So that, as we write, it is not possible to say in whose favour the gods of the battle will decide. But whoever is defeated will go forward, with even greater ardour than before, fully persuaded that he who returns to his charge after the defeat returns to win the day. All throughout the civilised world the wish is father to the thought that the Russians may overpower the dual forces, because such an occurrence would signify the first important release of Freedom from the grip of intoxicated Tyranny. Such release must spell for the greater liberty of the world.* And who can gainsay that it is for the cause of Liberty that these hard blows are struck.

In the minor seat of the war at the Dardanelles, there have been some mishaps. Submarines and torpedoes have played a havoc with three battleships during the month. By way of reprisals, some transports and minor crafts have been sunk. But the gains do not balance the losses. These were perchance inevitable. But both naval and military strategy are doing their respective work with a steadfastness of aim, combined with signal examples of individual gallantry which are the theme of the world's praise. It is a Himalayan task the Allies have imposed on themselves. The work of storming the capital of the Ottoman is necessarily slow, tedious, and dangerous. But if we take in earnest what has been hitherto achieved, there is no reason to suppose that this work will not be accomplished and accomplished with glory. It is not the Turk who is really fighting but the mercenary German. That entity seems to be exceedingly disliked by the brave Turk, who still regards and cherishes the British as his friend and protector. Already signs are reported of an outburst of patriotic feeling against the imported mercenary of the unpatriotic Enver Bey. And it may not be long before the gallant and honest Turk is released from the iron-grip of the bloody Teuton.

There has been no great activity in the fourth theatre of the war, Asiatic Turkey. Skirmishes are

taking place now and again, and the Allies' objective seems to be the occupation of Bagdad. But the intervening desert from Basra, and the marauding tribes on the march, are great obstacles.

In Central and Southern Africa, General Botha and his *confrères* are doing excellent work and enveloping the enemy wherever they can. There is no doubt the Map of Southern, Central, and Eastern Africa will have to be re-arranged at the end of the War.

In naval warfare in the North Sea, there has been no change. That High Admiral of the Seas, Sir John Jellicoe, is doing sentinel service with his officers and men which is simply invaluable. The mariners of England of the century are keeping a severe watch and ward over the enemy's fleet and successfully shutting out her trade with the outer world. Elsewhere submarines are doing their mosquito work which is no doubt irritating. But, on the whole, its torpedoing operations are confined to trawlers generally and a few merchantmen. The devilish act of piratical murder in respect of the *Lusitania* has not been repeated, though one cannot say when it may be repeated and where. A fleet of submarines of an improved type is a distinct danger and must be averted at all cost. It is apprehended that some such fleet is under construction and may be launched stealthily at the right psychological hour. But it is to be presumed that the Intelligence Department of the Admiralty is not ignorant of the enemy's usages and is not slow in its preparedness to snap this new machine of naval warfare, which is destined to revolutionise the whole field of naval strategy of the future.

Meanwhile aircraft has been also busy. And here the Allies have shewn over and over again that they are in every way superior to their enemy. The Zeppelins, despite the injury they have done of late to life and property on the east coast of England, are pronounced by experts as a failure. Reprisals are continuous, and the boldness, courage and the strategy with which British aircraft men have rendered injury to large military railway stations, arsenals and other factories, where the instruments of destruction are manufactured, have dealt a heavy blow which has tingled the blood of the hot-headed Teuton. Aircraft above and submarine strategy below the sea are destined to be the two new modes of warfare during the 20th century.

THE NATIONAL MINISTRY.

One other outstanding feature of the month remains to be noticed. Impelled by the call of

national duty which is higher than that of party, the Prime Minister, in view of the outside criticism of the way in which naval and military affairs were managed, criticisms mostly of an informed character or of a really unpatriotic and mischievous nation, deemed it his duty that all the great leaders of the country should be taken into confidence with a view to conducting the war in conformity with the opinion entertained by them. The Admiralty was upbraided and criticised, because it was alleged Mr. Winston Churchill had ordered the naval expedition to Dardanelles without consulting the Cabinet and in defiance of his expert first lord. The War Office was attacked and Earl Kitchener was accused of not expeditiously responding to the demands of the Field Marshal commanding the Army in Flanders touching ammunition and explosives. The only way to shut up the critics, honest and dishonest, was to invite the leaders of the Opposition in both the House to take their share of responsibility jointly with his Government in a cause which was national. That was the genesis of the Coalition Ministry now formed which is indeed another specimen of Mr. Asquith's consummate statesmanship and another instance of his fitness as the great national leader. The National Ministry is now formed and in active operation. And whatever the critics may have to say as to its composition, it is wise now to watch it and see how it works. After all; it is the work which it may perform which will be the task of its efficiency and administrative sagacity in the hour of the greatest national danger the people have met with. The creation of a new Minister of Maritimes was inevitable, and it is a satisfaction to the nation that he who had heroically administered the finances of the country to satisfaction would not be behind in giving equal satisfaction if temporarily placed at the head of the new department. Already Mr. Lloyd George has realised the best anticipations of the nation. His talents of organisation have once more proved themselves in good stead. As he himself expressed with some exultation, "the machine is already beginning to move." If so, the two great generalissimos at the front will soon be formed to carry on that dogged successful offensive of sending back the enemy across his own frontier, possibly in full retreat to his capital. That is the great denouement which the world is anxious to witness. May it be in the power of the Allies to achieve that greatness and liberate Europe, now garrotted, from the grip of the pirate and the assassin,

THE WORLD OF BOOKS

[ONLY SHORT NOTICES APPEAR IN THIS SECTION.]

The Miscellaneous Writings of the late Mr. Ranade. *Published by Mrs. Ramabai Ranade, Poona.*

Few indeed are the Indians of the present generation, as Mr. Wacha says in his excellent introduction to this book, "who have read so widely and so deeply as Mr. Ranade, and fewer still who have digested the pabulum he so voraciously swallowed, assimilated it to his own heart and reproduced it in a form which could hardly be differentiated from that of an original thinker." Mr. Ranade's *Essays on "Indian Economics and Indian History"* have already become classics in their own way, and they have been as it were the touch-stones with which to compare the works of subsequent scholars. Mr. Ranade was a versatile scholar, and his writings on various themes of interest bear the impress of his genius. The essays in this volume are judiciously divided into literary, social, historical and educational, in each of which he could write with a knowledge and authority scarcely disputed by savants. As such these essays will be valued alike by the student of contemporary thought in India and by the specialist in the respective branches of study.

A History of the Ancient World. *By Hutton Webster, Ph. D : George G. Harrap and Company, London.*

Ancient history is of perennial interest to us, as the ancient world is the parent of modern civilization. In the volume before us Prof. Webster has made a new and original arrangement of all the materials relating to the history of the ancient world from the earliest times to the fall of Rome. That period in particular offers exceptionally fruitful interest. The author does not deal with the subject in any pettifogging spirit. The point of view is that of human life and the social, industrial, and commercial life of the ancients no less than their military and political history which is treated with that complete knowledge which comes of the modern methods of historical criticism. The results of modern archeological discoveries are fully availed of, and the character-sketches of the leading personages make the book fascinating for young readers. The author's knack of eliminating unessentials, his firm grip of the fundamental landmarks in history, combined with his accuracy of statement and clearness of exposition, make the book of exceptional interest to all students of history.

The Great War of Ancient India. *By Thakur Rajendra Singh : Tikra Estate, Biswan.*

This is a connected narrative of the Great War of Ancient India, and as the original is at once too lengthy and too difficult for mere English educated youths, the author has made a succinct summary of the leading events of the great war and "strung them together in the form of a connected story which might prove interesting in these days of another great war." The author's view of the war is an essentially Hindu standpoint, and there are many suggestive and significant ideas that can be gleaned while reading between the lines. For one thing the author brings to light "the strange parallel between our old friend, Duryodhana and our new friend, the Kaiser."

The Law of Castes. *By Mr. N. H. Pandia, M.A., L.L.B., Attorney-at-Law, Bombay.*

This is a reprint of the author's contributions to the "Bombay Law Reporter" and the "Allahabad Law Journal." They have been thoroughly revised and published in book form. The book comprises two parts: "Incidents of the Caste System," and "The Civil Law of Castes." In these days when social questions are cropping up for solution, these scholarly chapters cannot fail to enlighten the reader on the intricacies of a system which has important bearings on the legal and social aspect of Hindu civilization.

Travels in the Mogul Empire. *By Francis Bernier. Edited by Archibald Constable : Oxford University Press, Bombay.*

Bernier's "Travels" has already become a classic with students of Mogul history though as yet no well edited and complete Edition of the famous work has appeared. In translating and annotating this precious historical document, Mr. Archibald Constable has followed the natural bent of his genius. It appears that this interest in Bernier is a hereditary possession as his grandfather originally planned such a treatise. The grandson "has accomplished (as he modestly claims) a work not absolutely correct, but merely less incorrect than others that I have seen." These words of Bernier, which the Editor quotes, are true of either. What to us is of special value, is that the work has been revised by that well-known scholar and historian, Vincent A. Smith, who writes a preface to this Edition. In his own words Mr. Constable's work just falls short of perfection but is excellent on the whole.

DIARY OF THE WAR

- May 17. British success near Festubert.
French success in Arras and Champagne.
Forcing the Dardanelles.
Zeppelin raid on Ramsgate.
- May 18. Continued advance of the French.
Zeppelin chased by British aeroplanes and damaged.
- May 19. Zeppelin air-raid on Calais.
Austrians routed in Bukhovina.
French success in the Cameroons.
- May 20. British advance on Lille.
Bombardment of Przemyśl.
Russians set fire to Baroslav oil-fields.
- May 21. Terrific fighting in Galicia.
The *Drumoree*, *Dumfries* and two trawlers sunk.
British Cabinet crisis; resignation of Lord Fisher.
- May 22. French success at Ypres and British progress north of La Bassée.
Operations in Gallipoli.
Good work by Gurkhas and Territorials.
- May 23. French and British successes.
Wholesale use of gas by Germans.
Russian activity in the Black Sea, landing at Eregli.
Three towns in the Caucasus occupied.
Holland proclaims a state of siege.
- May 24. Italy declares war on Austria.
Heavy German losses in Galicia.
- May 25. Battle round Ypres.
British regain lost ground.
Severe fighting in Galicia.
Italian invasion of Austria.
- May 26. Attack on the British near Ypres.
Austro-German offensive in Galicia.
Italian advance.
An American steamer torpedoed.
- May 27. German air-raids.
Masterly Russian retreat.
H. M. S. *Triumph* and *Majestic* sunk.
- May 28. Significant German admissions.
Italy's capture of strategic points.
Russian opinion of Italian intervention.
- May 29. French successes.
Capture of Ablain.
Great battle in Galicia.
Attack on Przemyśl.
- May 30. Enormous Austro-German losses.
Further Italian advance.
Reply to American Note.
Austrian dockyard shelled.
- May 31. Repulse of German attack.
Battle on the Sand river.
The enemy's retreat.
The arsenal at Pola ablaze.
- June 1. Zeppelins drop bombs near London.
Italians bombard Pola.
Germany's unsatisfactory reply to America.
- June 2. The air-raid on London.
Italians advance on the Tyrol front.
- June 3. Przemyśl forts entered by the enemy.
The capture of Ablain, General Pritwitz, German Commander of Libau, made prisoner.
- June 4. Przemyśl fort attacked.
British submarine sinks transports in the Marmora.
French air-raid on German headquarters.
Italians penetrate Austrian frontier.
- June 5. Russian successes at Libau.
Battle on the Isonzo River.
Turks defeated at Van.
- June 6. The evacuation of Przemyśl.
Italian offensive on the Isonzo.
British success in Cameroons.
Mr. Asquith's visit to France.
Operations in Mesopotamia: surrender of Amara.
Conviction of two alien spies in England.
Bombs dropped in various coast-towns in England.
- June 7. Shots exchanged in the Baltic.
Germany apologises for torpedoing the *Gulflight*.
M. Masson, Deputy for *Mons*, shot.
Italians bombard Austrian islands.
French gaining ground north of Arras.
- June 8. Three German warships sunk.
British airmen destroy airship shed near Brussels.
Minelayer *Ozabalanza* destroyed.
Zeppelin raid on the East Coast of England:
Battle of Arras favourable to French troops.
- June 9. Flight Sub. Lieutenant Warneford decorated with V.C. for destroying a Zeppelin.
Italians cross the river Isonzo.
- June 10. German submarine sunk.
British seaplanes drop bombs on Akbasch.
Italians occupy the town of Monfalcone.
German Fleet driven back in the Baltic Sea.
Italian airship destroyed.
- June 11. French capture of Neuville.
Italian attacks; retirement of the Austrians.
Two British torpedo boats sunk.
- June 12. Battle in Galicia.
Severe fighting in the Sharli region.
Fighting on the Carnio frontier.
Poisonous gases for Austria destroyed at Monfalcone.
Austrian torpedo boat sunk by an Italian submarine.
Second American Note to Germany.
- June 13. Russian successes from Baltic to Bukhovina.
Strike of German miners in Silesia.
Cholera in Austria.
Progress of Italians beyond Montenegro.
Defence of Constantinople.
- June 14. Rapid Italian offensive.
Austrians defeated in the mountains.
Russo-Turkish hostilities.
Warning to Americans.
- June 15. Fighting at Dixmude.
French advance in Lorraine.
Operations in Galicia.
Austro-Italian hostilities.

DIARY OF THE MONTH

- May 9. At the Provincial Conference, Poona, Resolutions relating to the repeal of the Indian Press Act, the revival of the Village System, and the development of the Industries were passed.
- May 10. A special London cablegram to the *Statesman* says:—It is generally understood there will be no extension of H. E. Lord Hardinge's term of office as Viceroy. The names of Lord Carmichael and Lord Islington are mentioned as possible successors.
- May 11. In connection with the Jhand dacoity, twenty-two men were sent up for trial before the District Magistrate of Jhand, who convicted and sentenced two to seven years and seven to three years each. One accused was discharged and two were acquitted.
- May 12. Sentence in the Bhampta gang case was passed at the City Magistrate's Court, Poona, this morning by Mr. Balak Ram, acting Sessions Judge. Twelve accused were sentenced to transportation for life, four accused to transportation for seven years, seven accused to rigorous imprisonment for three years, six accused to one year each and ten accused to one day's rigorous imprisonment each.
- May 13. The Government of Bombay have opened, at Dharwar, a juvenile jail on the Borstal system, and to this jail in future every convict will be sent if he satisfies certain conditions that have been specified.
- May 14. The Multan Special Tribunal to-day framed charges against 10 accused and discharged 27.
- May 15. A Resolution of the Government of India is published giving particulars of the enhancements made by the various Local Governments in the issue of prices of opium during the past few years.
- May 16. The Marathi Literary Conference held its 8th Sessions to-day at Bombay with Chief of Miraj in the chair.
- May 17. Orders under the Defence of India Act, 1915, have been served upon Messrs. Mahomed Ali and Shaikat Ali, Editors of the *Hamdard* and *Comrade* newspapers, directing them to remain within the limits of the Delhi Province.
- May 18. The Bengal Chamber of Commerce has elected Mr. F. H. Stewart, C.I.E., of Messrs. Gladstone, Wyllie & Co., as an additional Member of the Imperial Legislative Council.
- May 19. To-day the Lahore Conspiracy Case was continued before the Special Commissioners, when Counsel for the defence cross-examined Kirpal Singh.
- May 20. The Government of Madras have issued an Order regarding the proposal to grant special allowances to officials in Madura town and District.
- May 21. The Bombay Chamber of Commerce has addressed a letter to the Local Government on the subject of Volunteering in India in connection with the proposal of the Burma Chamber for compulsory military training in India.
- May 22. News has reached Calcutta that the Bengal Floating Hospital foundered.
- May 23. Dr. Sarvadikary in an interview regrets the loss but hopes that the corps will be formed into a field-ambulance or another Floating Hospital will be fitted out.
- May 24. At the Calcutta High Court, Mr. Justice Chitty and Mr. Justice Beachcroft rejected the application on behalf of Jnanranjan Sanyal and two other political suspects.
- May 25. At a meeting of the Punjab Press Association Resolutions were passed repudiating the insinuations against the *Hindustan*.
- May 26. The Superintendent of Police, Cooch Behar, states that all the jewellery of H. H. the Maharajah stolen from the Palace has been recovered except a diamond ring of the value of Rs. 60,000, and five sovereigns.
- May 27. The Local Government have addressed a letter to the Government of India recommending the appointment of two expert glass-blowers to train workmen in glass factories in the United Provinces.
- May 28. A Special Provincial Conference in connection with Council Government in the United Provinces was held in the Mayo Hall this afternoon with the Rajah of Muhammadabad in the chair.
- May 29. At the Calcutta High Court to-day Mr. Justice Woodroffe and Mr. Justice Richardson delivered judgment in the Nadia Mission Case.
- May 30. Government orders have been passed applying the Defence of India Act with the district of Backerganj.
- May 31. The "Times of India" says that the Bombay Mahomedans view with disfavour the holding of the Moslem League at Bombay this Christmas.
- June 1. The Government of Bengal have approved of the scheme of the residential school for the sons of gentlemen.
- June 2. Mr. Justice Tudball to-day sanctioned the scheme for the reconstruction of the Bank of Upper India.
- June 3. Sir Arnold White, late Chief Justice of the Madras High Court, has been appointed a Member of the India Council.
- June 4. News is received of the death of Dr. C. R. Henderson, of the Chicago University, who came out to India a few years ago on the Burrow's lectureship.
- June 5. An interesting case is proceeding in the Calcutta High Court for the recovery of Sir Taraknath Palit's gift of 16 lakhs to the Calcutta University.
- June 6. A meeting of the Council of the All-India Moslem League was held at Lucknow to-day.
- June 7. In the Dagri Case the Multan Special Tribunal sentenced 9 accused to 5 years' rigorous imprisonment, the rest being acquitted.
- June 8. The death occurred at Allahabad this morning from fever of the Hon. Dr. Satish Chandra Banerji.
- June 9. A deputation of the Punjab Hindu Sabha awaited on His Honour Sir Michael O'Dwyer, the Lieutenant-Governor at Simla.
- June 10. The Punjab Police have issued a list of rewards for the arrest of, or for information, leading to the arrest of 23 "wanted" persons.



WILLIAM'S NEW RECRUIT.

MOHAMMED : "Victory or Death !"

WILLIAM . "Let's divide the task; for you
death; for me victory."

TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS

RUSSIA AND CONSTANTINOPLE.

George Kennan, writing in a recent number of the *Outlook*, discusses the problem how the capture of Constantinople by the allied fleets would affect the plans and interests of Russia. The Russian Duma is convinced that the acquisition of the Bosphorous and Constantinople will be guaranteed by all the Powers both from a military and from a diplomatic point of view. Many of the Russian newspapers go even further than this, and some of them even discuss the expediency of annexing the eastern part of Asia Minor, and propose to create an autonomous Armenian State under Russian protection. The most important of the results that would immediately follow the capture of Constantinople are the release of Russia's surplus wheat and petroleum and the opening of a route by which she could import military supplies.

It is too early as yet to forecast the future of Constantinople, and the only prediction that can be safely made is, the waterway between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean will not soon again be closed to the ships of any nation. The waterway will probably be neutralised under an international treaty, and be thrown open without distinction or discrimination to the commerce of the world. Great Britain would probably be the safest guardian of the waterway, because she has no desire to dominate either Asia Minor or the Balkans, and has no motive for doing so. Taking all things into consideration the best practicable solution of the problem would seem to be the creation of a neutral strip or zone which should include Constantinople and the littoral of the Straits; and which should be under the control of a small international Commission appointed by Russia, Great Britain, France, Italy and Roumania; and which should derive its powers from a carefully drawn and clearly expressed international treaty. As for Russian plans and ambitions in other parts of the Turkish Empire, one can only say that her rule in Eastern Asia Minor would at least be more enlightened than that of Turks and Kurds; while the creation of an autonomous Armenian State would be a distinct gain for civilisation. But Russia could hardly hope to take possession of the Holy Land at present without the co-operation of the West European Powers, and such help she is at present not likely to have.

CHINA AND THE ELIXIR OF LIFE.

Mr. Hadland Davis, writing to the May number of the *Theosophist* about the Elixir of Life, says that in Cathay, alchemy had its original source and from thence came into Arabia. Lao Tsu, the founder of Taoism, loaded his teaching with much abstruseness; his way was a hard way, too hard for the ignorant man who clamoured at once for spiritual consolation. He described his way as the "happiness of God," "a sacred everlasting calm," "a passing into the realm of the Infinite and making one's final rest therein." At the point when pure Taoism ended, a host of magicians finding the way a very thorny path, attempted to solve the problem of immortality by inventing the Elixir of Life. According to them the Elixir of Life is also the elixir of gold and the panacea for all ills, the transmutation of earth into heaven. The Jadestone (K'ung) was regarded with great veneration by them as the symbol of whiteness, spotlessness and purity, and takes a prominent place in Chinese alchemy. Their alchemists did not regard gold as a precious metal that had always been in existence but the result of a slow evolutionary process, from the dim beginnings of creation to silver up to the precious metal itself. It was produced by evolution from mercury, the female principle of nature, when acted upon by the male or the solar principle. The marvels seen by the later Taoists have been recorded with much poetry and imagination and with so much tantalising glamour as to lead one to suppose that the brushes of the writers were steeped in a kind of transcendental fairyland. "Behind these fantastic stories and preposterous adventures in the unknown, we can trace a craving after the Beautiful. There is a view of truth in them all, the essential truth of all-enduring life. These Chinese alchemists tried to find peace in the dark and tangled woods of never-satisfying magic. They eagerly pressed forward with groping hands to the waters of crystalline jadestone, to the peach tree, to the mighty tree that grows in the moon. This quest is sacred, memorable, because it reveals colossal human effort. Perhaps this search, this splendid struggle, this yearning for something more than life's human span is answered for all-times in these mystical words: "To him that overcometh, will I give to eat of the Tree of Life, which is in the midst of the Paradise of God."

REPRISALS IN WARFARE.

Mr. W. E. Wilkinson writing, in the May number of the *Law Magazine and Review* about reprisals, considers their nature and their justification and the extent to which they affect neutrals. First, there are reprisals which have put pressure on one state by another with a view to securing the redress of a wrong alleged to have been done by it or by one of its subjects. Such measures may take the form of the seizure of the property of the state or its subjects, or even of violence exercised against such state. But the parties do not choose to regard themselves as belligerents, and diplomatic relations continue between them. Reprisals of this sort may end in the declaration of war. The other kind of reprisals are those in warfare and are retaliations of an illegitimate act of warfare for the purpose of making the enemy comply in future with the rules of legitimate warfare. This is an application of the *lex talionis* or repayment of evil for evil.

At the outset it is desirable to point out a distinction between those violations of the laws of war committed by members of the enemy forces by order of the belligerent government and similar violations committed by such persons without any order of government. It is in the former case that resort may be had to reprisals. Protest should be first tried, but if that is of no avail there is nothing to do, but to exercise force of the same kind as that used by the opponent. Taylor going further says that if an enemy violates the established usages of war, it may become not only the right but even the duty of his adversary to retaliate so as to prevent further excesses. The German jurist, Lueder, declares quite strangely that non-observance of the laws of war by one party deprives that party of the right to claim fulfilment by the other. Logically this assertion would lead to the conclusion that a mutual obligation is dissolved by the failure of one party to perform it. Dr. Westlake reaches the right conclusion, that the "true basis of the right of reprisal in warfare seems to be not the impairing of any obligation, but the redressing by punishment or exaction of damages of a violated obligation." Moreover, the illegalities of one opposing state do not permit a state to become free from the law, but only gives that state a right to vindicate International Law by a fitting punishment or the exaction of fitting remedies. Even during the Franco-German War, Germany recognised the legitimacy of reprisals in warfare.

The matter of reprisals has not been dealt with by any of the great law-making conventions held at the Hague and elsewhere; but their nature and scope have always been limited in theory to the measure of the infraction of the laws of war committed by the enemy. There is need for great caution in exercising this right as the victims of reprisals will be in almost all cases not the actual perpetrators of the breach, but innocent persons, such as prisoners of war detained in the power of the side resorting to reprisals. Reprisals in times of peace are admissible only in the case of actual international delinquencies; while those in warfare are admissible for every kind of illegitimate act of warfare whether an international delinquency or not. Mr. Balfour's vindication of the Allies' reprisals owing to the blockade of Germany lays stress on the mildness of the measures adopted by the former, which will appear the more marked when compared with the acts of the Germans in the Franco-German War or even with those of Lord Roberts in the South-African War.

ISLAM IN FIJI.

Mr. Frank Nunn, writing in the April issue of the *Moslem World*, describes the progress that Islam has till now made in Fiji. The religion of the Prophet was first introduced to these Christian isles about thirty-five years ago by the first batch of Indian indentured labourers who went there. The number of Mussulmans may probably be 15,000, but they are involuntarily influenced by their Christian environment and neighbours. Islam has never taken root in the country, and is still exotic; Ramzan and other festivals are but slightly observed. Here the religion lacks organisation, and the authority of the self-styled Moulvies is disputed by the more intelligent and better educated among them. It has not shown any aptitude or inclination for influencing the Fijian native, nor has it any regular mosques and endowments there. Islam is not aggressive, lacks consolidation and unanimity; and it remains to be seen whether anything is possible in that direction. There is an idea of bringing out a Moulvie from India. But meanwhile many of the Fiji-born Moslems have been converted into Christianity, and are now numbered among the Indian Christians. The C.M.S. also carries on active work, assisted by a small company of Indian catechists and teachers. Last they be forestalled Islamic teachers must actively take up in hand immediately the work of attempting to reach the Indians scattered throughout the islands.

CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA.

In the pages of the April number of the *East and West*, we come across an interesting disquisition by Mr. Skipton as to the probability of the establishment of a united church for the whole of Indian Christians. The Roman Catholic Church in India is almost wholly alien in the sense of being non-English, and its dioceses are parcelled out among foreign religious orders, the German Jesuits figuring conspicuously among them. But the Catholics, though considerable, are steadily diminishing in numbers; and the tendency is in the direction of greater freedom of thought and organisation and wider scope for the expression of a national spirit and characteristics. The Indian Christians—at least outside the Roman Church—are already dreaming of a united church for India. They argue that the quarrels of European Christians are no concern of theirs, and their distinctions appear to these, strange, exotic and unintelligible.

The Bishop of Madras declares that there is a far greater need of a definite creed in India than there is in Europe and America. In India, the thought, the philosophy, the civilisation, the social institutions and moral standards are all non-Christian, and here a church without a creed would be exposed to the overwhelming pressure of ideas and ideals hostile to the Christian faith. Secondly, the Indian Church must maintain definite historical connection with primitive Christianity in view of the strong bias of the Indian temperament towards metaphysics and its lack of interest in history. It will be good if the Indian Church is organised upon monarchical rather than democratic principles. It is being widely felt that there is a tendency among missionary agencies to keep their communities overmuch in leading strings. The work of the missionary is now largely done; and some communities of Indian Christians are already self-supporting and even send out their own missionaries. And the time has surely come to recognise definitely the existence—unorganised perhaps, and inchoate—but none the less a living actuality—of an Indian Church with a growing corporate sense responsible for working out its own collective salvation.

The question of organisation is also very important; the constitution of the Church must harmonise with the temper of the people and must keep in view the possibility of inter-communion with the Churches of the East.

IS BUDDHISM DEAD IN INDIA?

Mr. B. K. Sirkar writing to *Buddhist Review* of April, 1915, fights against the prevalent idea that Buddhism as an active force has been long dead and gone from India. He declares that the future possibilities of its regeneration are tremendous. In India all the prejudice against Buddhism was never directed against its principles, nor even against the whole of its practices. Tantric Buddhism embodying a considerable amount of practices of the older form of the Faith has an organic branch developed in the Hinduism prevalent in Orissa, Bengal and the United Provinces. The difference between Buddhism and modern Hinduism is not a difference of principle, not even a difference in the outlook on life, or one in the really vital points that count in a system of belief, but is rather in the way in which these principles are sought to be realised in life. The system of morals that modern Hinduism enforces is very much the same as in Buddhism, but while the latter lays vigorous stress on the individual as the centre of all activities the former includes Nature as an inevitable companion of the self that is to raise itself to Nirvana.

Mr. Sirkar then proceeds to illustrate that the Age of the Buddha saw an all complete economic, artistic and political life and yet pointed to life's goal as being purely spiritual. Such an all complete life of the world with its comprehensive outlook, offering a complete programme of life and society is the ideal that India ought to set before itself; and it is the India of the Buddha—the manifold activities of the successors of the Buddha—that must be the ideal of future India. Intellectually speaking Buddhism has special features that must appeal to new India. The Buddhist method of reasoning is essentially positive in character. Facts as data and disciplined methods of treatment were most markedly developed in Buddhist and post-Buddhist discourses. Our activities must be guided on the experiences of the Buddhist. *Bhikkus*, the Buddhist householder, and the Buddhist politician and ruler. Diffusion of knowledge and world-wide philanthropy is the mark of the Buddhistic age more than of any other. It is the Buddhist Asoka that is the prototype of knowledge, humane virtues, and spiritual co-ordination. By Buddhism India shall have her economic, spiritual, political and intellectual organs fully developed and the balance kept between the parts

ISLAM AND RUSSIA.

Lieutenant-Colonel A. C. Yate writing to the May number of the *United Service Magazine* deprecates the organisation that is being set on foot to boom Russia as the rightful heir of Byzantium. The case for Russia embraces Constantinople as the mother of the Greek Church, and the straits between the Aegean and the Euxine as a channel of commerce of great value behind which can shelter itself the naval strength of a mighty power. There are writers like Mr. Mackail and leading journals like the *Times* and the *Spectator* which elaborate Russia as the coming benefactor of the world and which believe in the historical continuity, by which the world-mission of Greece had passed to Russia through Byzantium. Russia bases her claim to Constantinople on her close religious union therewith, on the part she has played since the downfall of the Greek Empire in curbing Turkish ambition and on the colossal power to which her empire has now risen. The Greeks are the direct rivals of the Russians for the possession of Stamboul, and it is difficult to say whether Armenians and Jews would rather be subject to Russia or Turkey. Russia has long shown her determination to allow no other European power to trespass upon Armenia, and this may be revived as an argument in favour of the cession of Constantinople to Russia. The straits are of little importance to any European power when compared with their value to Russia. Owing to the presence of the Roumanians and the Bulgarians, Russia cannot have a land link on the European side of the Black Sea. Hence Russia's occupation of Constantinople and the straits bristles with difficulties. Greece, Bulgaria and Roumania do remain sitting on the fence and their prospects as allies of the *Triple Entente* are not encouraging.

At this moment when the possible accession to the Czar of the control of the Aegean-Euxine passage obliges Great Britain to safeguard more than ever her chain of outposts in the Mediterranean; several papers are advocating the internationalisation of Gibraltar. The talk about Russian mission of regeneration will end in as much disillusion as that of the Germans who began to regenerate the world some forty years ago and have now brought the world to the verge of destruction. The world mission of neither Great Britain nor Russia is at an end, and sooner or later they will cross each other's path.

Coming to other questions, it is probable that

the Province of Basrah will certainly be annexed to India and that of Baghdad may well follow suit. Mecca and Medina may not improbably place themselves under the protection of the Sultan of Egypt, and the monarch to whom Mecca owes allegiance may well be recognised as Caliph. The future destiny of Syria with which the most sacred traditions of Christendom and the hallowed aspirations of the Jews are associated and where political, commercial and industrial interests are strong and active, it would be vain to forecast. But Armenia, Erzerum, Trebizond and Samsun must surely pass to Russia. Persia should not be deprived by her powerful northern neighbour of Azerbaijan, and Russia must respect the Convention of 1907, which guaranteed the independence of Persia. And thus this great war will lead to the commencement of a new era in the history of Islam.

INDIA AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

Mr. G. H. Lepper, an authority on matters of immigration and the status of coloured people within the Empire, advocates once more the policy of reciprocal treatment as between India and the self-governing dominions in the current number of the *United Empire*. He repeats his warning that the Indian question, if not dealt with in good time, will tend to merge in the still greater issue of European against Asiatic, and combined with the problem of Mongol expansion will produce a serious racial conflagration in the near future. It is "India's sons that are fighting with the greatest bravery and tenacity in France and the Euphrates valley. They assisted in the reduction of Tsing-tau; they beat back the Turkish attempt to cross the Suez canal; and they have been in the thick of the fray in East Africa. Unless the white race is content to astonish the world by its ingratitude, the services which India has rendered and will continue to give cannot be allowed to pass without some tangible recognition of the claims of Indians as British subjects to share in the spoils of victory which they will have helped to make possible."

There is no near prospect of any material change in the attitude of the Self-governing Dominions towards Indian immigration. German East Africa is unsuited for colonisation by white men, of whom there are fewer than 5,000 resident in the colony. With its acquisition there can be no longer any political obstacle to the completion of an All-British Railway from

Cape Town to Cairo. It would be a valuable experiment to set apart German East Africa as a colony for Indians, and Indians only (save for the necessary white officials in the organisation period) subject to due regard for the interests of the aboriginal inhabitants, for whom reservations could be easily demarcated. This area would itself accommodate many millions of Indians and eventually some of British East Africa and Sudan might be added to the Indian zone in Africa, provided that the experimental stage should give satisfactory results. In German East Africa, especially if it is won largely by India's own sons there will be a magnificent and probably a unique opportunity both to reward the services of India to the Empire in the present struggle and to attempt a permanent solution of the claims of Indians to share more fully in the Imperial heritage.

"Given an outlet for Indian emigrants in East Africa, it ought not to be beyond the powers of statesmanship to arrange that India should have the power to exclude whitemen of the working class just as the Dominions exclude Indians. Or it might be arranged that the number of Indians to be admitted to any one of the white states of the Empire should bear a relative proportion to the white population of the state. The conferring of full political rights on the small Indian communities domiciled in the Dominions could be the only step necessary to meet every legitimate aspiration of Indians for equality of treatment and the recognition of their claims as British subjects."

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

Lord Bryce gives expression to some "Stray Thoughts on American Literature" in the *North American Review*. Among the changes that have passed upon the literary output of the United States during the past forty years, Lord Bryce gives first place to the closer relation that now exists between American and British literature. Today, he says, people in Britain read books published in America, and Americans read books published in Britain, far more generally than was ever the case before. The taste and the criticism of each country are more influenced by those of the other. As regards "solid literature," the chief characteristic of the American output is the attention given to historical investigation and "the large crop that is being raised in the field of economics and of the social sciences in their application to social progress."

THE HINDU IDEAL OF EDUCATION.

Mr. T. L. Vaswani, Principal of Dyal Singh College, Lahore, writing to the present number of the *Vedic Magazine* about the Hindu ideal of education, suggests that education is *unfolding and not accumulating* and that it must rest on a synthesis of life, or an ideal. In ancient China, the ideal was ancestor worship, so that the scholar's one great virtue was humility. The synthesis of life in ancient Persia rested on dualism, so that every Zoroastrian scholar had to develop the virtue of purity which meant following the *Aluramazda* (good spirit) and opposing *Ahriman* (evil spirit). The note of emphasis in the ideal, the synthesis of life in ancient India was *Dharma*, which became the shaping factor of Hindu education. The ideal of *Dharma* may be analysed into five elements, viz., a consciousness of the universal immanence and operation of the divine, reverence for the social order and reverence for the king, *ahimsa* or *harmlessness*, appreciation of the power of meditation and self-renunciation. Everyone of these five elements entered into the plan of the old Hindu education. Fellowship with the *guru*, communion with Nature, fellowship with the great heroes of the Hindu race, travels to different places recognised as beauty spots and centres of the sanctifying influence of Nature—these produced in the student a life of simplicity and self-denial, of reverence for elders and for all forms of life, of love and humility.

The present system of godless, soulless and secular education, cannot be remedied unless knowledge is related to a spiritual synthesis of life, the *Adyatma vidya*. There is need of a new concentration of life—a new apprehension of man's fundamental relations to the universe. Knowledge has not deepened life, because our culture is at best literary, whereas true culture must always be spiritual. Education controlled by the Hindu ideal is our need, without it there can be no regeneration of the Hindu life, nor a spiritual renewal of the Hindu race consciousness. For this work bands of young men must be organised in different parts who should dedicate themselves to the sacred cause, and they in order to succeed should have faith and self-renunciation, and not merely scholarship. The type of education developed in a country is an important test of the civilisation of that country, and our national greatness can never be revived with our present system of aimless, secular instruction.

THE ZEND AVESTA.

Mr. K. Amrita Rao contributes a learned paper to the December number of the *Journal of the South Indian Association* about this great Zoroastrian scripture; and illustrates Professor Roth's statement: "The *Veda* and *Zend-Avesta* are two rivers flowing from one fountain-head; the stream of the *Veda* is the fuller and purer and has remained truer to its original character, that of the *Zend-Avesta* has been in various ways polluted; has altered its course and cannot with certainty be traced back to its source." Some scholars have fixed the date of the *Avesta* at 1000 B.C., others ascribe it to 2000 or even 6000 B.C. and others again believe that Zoroaster lived about the 7th century B.C. There can however be no doubt that Zoroaster lived much earlier than the last supposition, from the evidence of the development of the language and religion and from the fact that during the time of *Alexander the Great*, the *Avesta* had been collected and had assumed a definite shape. Tradition believes that Zoroaster lived in the reign of Gushtasp of the Kayanian dynasty by (circa 1300 B.C.) and the most prosperous period of his religion was from 1000 B.C. to the invasion of Alexander. The religion declined from this time until it was revived by Ardeshir Babekan in the latter part of the 3rd century B.C., who also reduced the *Avesta* to writing. Its fate was decided by the battle of Nahavend in 641 A.D.

The prophet Jeremiah, the Arabian historians Tabari and Masudi, the great Persian poet Nizami, all these say that the *Avesta* was well-known even during the 5th and 6th centuries B.C. The *Avesta* may be divided into five sections, viz., the *Yasna* or liturgical portion; the *Vispered* a collection of formulæ and doxologies; the *Yashts* hymns in honour of the various angles and spiritual beings, the *Vendidad* which prescribes priestly purifications and corresponds to the code of Manu; and the *Khordeh Avesta*, a kind of prayer-book compiled in later times for the use of the laity. As in the *Rig-Veda* we can discern clearly two dialects in the *Avesta*; the language of the *Avesta* is closely akin to Sanskrit in vocabulary, inflexions and certain peculiarities of sounds. The name Deva is the general appellation of an evil spirit a fiend inimical to all that comes from God and is good. Most of the Vedic divinities are mentioned in the *Avesta*, some as demons and others as angels. To the devout Zoroastrian the gods whom the Brahmin adores are evil genii, and the Vedic ritual of Soma offering a revolting orgie.

IMPRESSIONS OF INDIA.

The Earl of Ronaldshay, writing to the *Asiatic Review* for April 1915, tries to take a detached and comprehensive view of India as a whole. Statistics with regard to population as a whole assume for us definite meaning and reality when one has been thrown into contact with the courtly and intellectual Brahmin of Southern India, the primitive Kol of Central India, the precocious Bengali, the Mahomedan landholder of the United Provinces and the Punjab, the indolent and easy-going Burman, the business-like Parsee of Bombay and the picturesque chieftain of Baluchistan. Then going on to other aspects of life, architecture, philosophy, etc., he says that the outstanding characteristics of Mahomedan architecture is its simple grandeur of outline, its purity and its stateliness, while Hindu architecture is characterised by an amazing exuberance of ornamentation and an elaborate intricacy of design. In the domain of philosophy, except in those regions which are dominated by the creed of Islam, the doctrine of Karma and transmigration exercises an almost universal sway.

The traveller's first impressions are formed at Bombay, which is chiefly interesting as being symptomatic of the economic transition which is taking place in India. This city is the main-spring of the movement which is beginning to create large industrial enterprises, which must inevitably bring in their train far-reaching changes in the existing structure of the Indian social organism. In the jungles which stretch far away from the southern borders of the United Provinces to the Central Provinces, the traveller finds himself in a different world beyond the sphere of the influence of the railways where there is nothing modern or up-to-date. The North-Western Frontier is 'the razor's edge, on which hang suspended the modern issues of war or peace of life and death of nations.' The wandering ascetic, known variously as Fakir, Sadhu, Sanyasi and Yogi, is so striking a type, and so utterly outside the range of experience in the West, that the traveller is attracted by it and seeks to find some explanation for its origin. Asceticism has in many places deteriorated into mendicancy, and failed to withstand the onslaught of the new spirit which has been introduced into the country from the West. Monasticism is associated with Buddhism, wherever it is found, and in Burma where Buddhism is still the popular religion, the monasteries play a part of considerable value in the life of the people.

GERMAN SOCIALISM AND THE WAR.

Mr. M. W. Robison, writing in the April number of the *Hibbert Journal* about the absolute failure of the German socialist movement to prevent or even to delay the outbreak of the war, deploras that the movement does not even protest very vigorously against the war. There seems to be good reason to suppose that the German Social Democratic Party entered on the war not indeed without some protest, but with resignation to the inevitable and a conviction that Germany's cause was just. They have not broken up the army, nor have they tried to make civil government impossible, and a general strike has not been so much as mentioned. The party is accused either of impotence or of inconsistency, and it is early to adduce arguments in support of either case. German socialism has devoted all its energies to building up a marvellous but useless political structure, and has wasted its breath discussing problems irrelevant to the real issues of its system or taking counsel with itself what to do under hypothetical circumstances when it would be no longer worth while doing anything. Orthodox Marxism has never been quite clear on its own principle, and its practice has been seriously at variance with them. Bernstein, its ablest critic and reformer, has given up Marxism altogether. He recommends definitely that the socialist party should support Government in carrying out its imperialistic policy and in the measures it takes for the Fatherland. He has lost sight of the fundamental principles which make the socialist party socialist and refuses to admit that there are definite limits in which the socialist argument must fall. The *Revisionism*, as this movement is called, has consequently made the party open to influence from the side of Imperialism, and even the late inordinate growth of the party is accounted for partly by its close connection with, and subordination to, Jingo sentiment. It has lost touch with the fundamental ideas to which it still pretends to do lip service; it has not been even theoretically opposed to the form of Imperial expansion on the part of Germany, which is among the most important causes of the present war. The process has continued ever since; even Bebel has shouted for the Fatherland; and in the end no protest was raised against the threatened violation of Belgian neutrality. This condition of things may permit only of complex statement, but its essence is simple enough. It is the manner in which Revisionism is wholly given over to politics that is at the basis of the whole change.

THE STUDY OF INDIAN HISTORY.

Mr. J. N. Das Gupta writes to a recent number of the *Dacca Review* in a rambling way about the available sources of information regarding the early British period of Indian History. A book which ought to exist is a history of modern India beginning from 1850 or 1858, showing in detailed and scientific form the various improvements, moral and material, that have taken place since that time. Some of the most precious treasures of the India Office Archives have been thrown open to the general reader. Forrest's collection of State Papers relating to the administration of Warren Hastings, Griev's edition of the Letters of Warren Hastings to his wife, the Letters of Lord Dalhousie and Mr. Hill's—two notable volumes in the Indian Records Series—these have been published, and tempt the eagerness of the genuine student. But the long-felt want of a comprehensive Indian History still remains unwritten.

So far back as 1872, Bishop Stubbs deplored in his inaugural address, at Bedford, the want of a permanent chair of Indian History; and his words have not lost anything of their force and relevance through lapse of time. One of the most hopeful signs of the times is the steadily growing interest in the study of Indian History for the sake of the instruction which it affords. The 17th and 18th centuries are also the more remarkable, in that they witnessed the close union between the East and the West, whose outcome is the present Indian Empire and the evolution of certain ideals as regards the government of dependencies and certain corresponding definite conceptions regarding the nature and responsibilities of Empire. The modern historian no longer accepts the view that the acquisition of sovereign authority in India by the East India Company is something marvellous or strange. It is to understand this strange paradox that we have to study certain aspects of India in the 17th and the 18th centuries with the help of the narratives of European travellers, foreign observers and British officials, who were drawn to our land by love of adventure, the fascination of romance and the call of the East. The materials available for such an examination in this department are simply bewildering in their immensity and complexity, and the field for study and research which lies practically unexplored in certain directions is almost inexhaustible. Such a limitation of our field of survey is not without its collateral advantages.

THE PRINCIPAL MEDITATIONS.

Writing to a recent number of the *Buddhist Review*, Mr. F. E. Balls gives us an interesting discourse on meditation, its value and the place that it occupies in the various religious systems, especially Buddhism. Meditation has been regarded in India from the earliest times as a means of obtaining control of the superhuman energies of Nature; but it has always been combined with the practice of extreme austerities and self-mortification. The Lord Buddha was one of the first to reject the useless penances, while retaining the all-important mental training which meditation affords. The meditations enjoined in his system were and are methods by which the energy of the mind could be concentrated or focussed in self-mastery, while at the same time an intense sympathy was cultivated with the surrounding universe. The meditations that the Buddha incorporated in his doctrine included certain definite exercises which he had learned from teachers, who were held in the highest repute. But he declared that each meditation failed in bringing the mind to such a state of enlightenment as would enable it to grasp the cause of sorrow and the manner of its uprooting; each contained the element of impermanence and illusion, and though purifying desire did not extinguish it.

All the varieties of meditations have as their fruit the uprooting of hindrances, the building up of the elements of enlightenment and the winning of the ten perfections. It is not the ecstatic form of meditation that is of essential value, but the less intense and more sustained form. The meditation on the four infinite feelings, love, pity, sympathetic gladness and equanimity, feelings not bound by any sense of selfish craving is preparatory to lead the mind away from the idea of beings, to that which lies beyond, viz., deliverance. These should not be regarded as a pleasant recreation or as a means of obtaining a few hours' ecstasy. They are meant to inform the habitual states of mind of any one engaged in the ordinary affairs of life, and all the ecstasy and emotion are only valuable in so far as they strengthen that feeling and fix it in the mind. Meditation should not be approached as magical means of obtaining wonderful powers and experiences, for the reward they offer is totally different from that which the seeker for such would desire. Sustained equanimity is the necessary corollary of all effective meditation, while intensity of feeling is desirable, and thought-wandering should be guarded against.

PROFESSOR J. C. BOSE IN AMERICA.

Mr. Sudhindra Bose, writing in the current number of the *Modern Review* about the lecturing tour of Professor Jagadis Chandra Bose in America, speaks of the enormous popularity that the professor enjoys and of the vast and appreciative audiences that everywhere listened to him. 'The Indian scientific wizard, who makes plants record their own feelings' has simply been swamped with letters and telegrams from Maine to California for lecture engagements. Learned bodies such as the New York Academy of Sciences, the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Science, the Harvard, the Columbia and the Chicago Universities, listened with delight to him and presented him with addresses. Wherever he appears with his cunningly simple instruments and gives a demonstration, he is immediately recognised as one of the really great men of Science whose labour promise to open a new era in anatomy, botany, biology and perhaps also in psychology. The general topic of the professor's lecture is plant autographs and their revelations. He demonstrates that plants feel pain and exhilaration as do animals, and that the stimulus to motion in plants is of the same nervous character as in animals. There are tissues in plants which beat spontaneously like the heart-beat of the animal. And he measures the perception-time of the plants, the speed of their nervous impulses and their reactions to various anaesthetics and poisons.

Professor Bose is a clear, forceful, and convincing speaker, is intoxicated with the fascination of his work and speaks therefore out of the fullness of his heart, and has no time for the gaudy arts of the professional spell-binders. He is intensely human and sees deeply that the essential brotherhood of man is a glowing reality and not a mere lofty abstraction. His passion as a humanist is India and its people. He says with proper emphasis: "Have one definite idea, one definite dream of your life, nothing is impossible if you have power to will. Nothing great is done without suffering, and you may have to suffer a great deal. . . . Keep yourself for some service in India. . . . Be a man and help others to become manly. . . . Fill your life to the brim with sweetness and life and activity." He denies that commercial success is any fair testimony to a man's true ability, and prizes like that of Nobel seem to be beyond the pale of his thoughts.

QUESTIONS OF IMPORTANCE

H. E. LORD HARDINGE'S TERM.

In the House of Commons on 14th June, Mr. Asquith made a statement with reference to the extension of H. E. Lord Hardinge's term of office, details of which have been issued in India.

STATEMENT BY H. E. THE VICEROY.

H. E. the Viceroy has issued the following statement:—

“The Secretary of State has asked me to give publicity to the following announcement made by the Prime Minister in the House of Commons:—

“Under normal circumstances, Lord Hardinge of Penhurst's term of office as Viceroy and Governor-General of India would have terminated in November next, but His Majesty's Government, recognising the great services which Lord Hardinge has rendered to India, and desiring to retain the advantage of his experience during the coming winter, have requested him to remain until the end of March next. Lord Hardinge has readily consented to comply with our wishes, and the King has been pleased to approve the arrangement. I am glad of the opportunity to express my sense of the public spirit which, in spite of the great strain of his labours and in face of heavy private sorrows, has led Lord Hardinge to place his services unreservedly at our disposal.”

“While fulfilling the wishes of the Secretary of State in making public this announcement, I desire to say that while in the critical times through which the Empire is passing I feel that it is my bounden duty to fall in with the wishes of His Majesty's Government, whatever they may be, it is with no light heart that I have agreed to this prolongation of the onerous responsibilities that fall to a Viceroy's lot, but I do not forget that many of the Ruling Chiefs of India and many Bodies, representatives of various communities and interests, have given expression to a wish that the tenure of my office should be extended, and the feeling that I have of the friendly confidence of so many gives me courage to continue to fulfil my duties to the best of my ability, and for the welfare of India and her people.”

THE ITALIAN NAVY.

The following tables show the armoured ships of the Italian Navy:—

DREADNOUGHTS.

Name.	Displacement.	Date.	Armament.
Andrea Doria ..	23,025	1913	13 12in. 16 6in.
Cato Duilio ..	23,025	1913	13 12in. 16 6in.
Giulio Cesare ..	20,010	1911	13 12in. 18 4·7in.
Leonardo da Vinc.	20,010	1911	13 12in. 18 4·7in.
Conte di Cavour ..	20,010	1911	13 12in. 13 4·7in.
Dante Alighieri ..	20,010	1910	12 12in. 20 4·7in.

PRE-DREADNOUGHTS.

Roma ..	12,425	1907	2 12in. 12 8in.
Napoli ..	12,425	1905	2 12in. 12 8in.
Resina Elana ..	12,425	1904	2 12in. 12 8in.
V. Emanuele III. .	12,425	1904	2 12in. 12 8in.
Benedetto Brin ..	13,207	1901	4 12in. 4 8in.
B. Margherita ..	13,207	1901	4 12in. 4 8in.
A. di Saint Bon ..	9,645	1897	4 10in. 8 6in.
E. Filiberto ..	9,645	1897	4 10in. 8 6in.
Sicilia ..	13,085	1891	4 13·5in 8 6in.
Sardegna ..	13,640	1890	4 13·5in 8 6in.
Re Umberto ..	13,825	1888	4 13·5in 8 6in.

ARMOURED CRUISERS.

San Giorgio ..	9,680	1908	4 10in. 8 7·5in.
San Marco ..	9,680	1908	4 10in. 8 7·5in.
Amalfi ..	9,980	1908	4 10in. 8 7·5in.
Pisa ..	9,980	1907	4 10in. 8 7·5in.
F. Ferruccio ..	7,234	1902	1 10in. 2 8in.
Varese ..	7,234	1899	1 10in. 2 8in.
G. Garibaldi ..	7,234	1899	1 10in. 2 8in.
Carlo Alberto ..	6,396	1896	12 6in. 6 4·7in.
Vettor Pisani ..	6,396	1895	12 6in. 6 4·7in.
Marco Colo ..	4,511	1892	6 6in. 10 4·7in.

Regarding the construction programme of Italy, not much information is to hand beyond that already given, but it should be noted that her authorities have had time to profit by the experience of the war, and no doubt they have made good use of the opportunity afforded her

INDIANS AND ARMY COMMISSIONS.

"S. H." writes in the *New Statesman*:—

Indian newspapers received by the last few mails, as well as private letters from such centres as Calcutta, Delhi and Bombay, leave little room for doubt that a question which has long been the subject of discussion in India and of representations to Government, has at last under the stress of recent events, assumed a somewhat insistently practical complexion. It is the question of the admission of Indians to the higher ranks of their own army. At present no Indian whatever his rank, social position, or military worth, can hope to receive the King's Commission. That the restriction may have been relaxed in one or two stray cases merely proves that there is no statutory prohibition. But the existing organisation of the Indian Army does not include any class of native commissioned officers. Nor has any Indian soldier, whether a Sikh, Gurkha, Pathan or any other, whatever his seniority or services, ever become even a lieutenant.

What then, it may be asked, is the position of the Indian officers? They are classed, one observes, with the British commissioned officers in the casualty lists, but this must be regarded as a matter of courtesy, for they are not recognised as officers even of the Indian Army. They may have the *entrées* of the officers' mess, they may be entitled by usage to receive the salute from the Indian private soldier; but they are appointed by the Government of India, and it is not the King's Commission that they hold. The Risaldar-Major or Subadar Major, although he has attained the highest rank to which an Indian may aspire, remains inferior to, and must salute the lowliest, British subaltern. No matter how distinguished his record, he must always, as far as his relations with European officers and privates are concerned, have a non-commissioned status. The only other kind of officership held by Indians is the honorary rank in the British Army bestowed on some of the native princes. This, however, is a complementary distinction, and, in principle, similar to the honour enjoyed, for instance, by the German Emperor up to the outbreak of the war of being an Admiral of the British Fleet. To take a concrete illustration: there is a famous Indian holding the high honorary rank of Major-General in the British Army, but in order to be a Commander in the field he must have a regular commission in the Indian Army. It will thus appear that at both ends of the ladder the

great but simple privilege of holding His Majesty's Commission is denied to Indians.

This grave disability, which perpetuates the mistrust of the panicky post-Mutiny era of administration, has for the last quarter of a century been regarded by most thinking people in India as having outlived its usefulness. The educated community have increasingly resented it as an undeserved and gratuitous stigma alike on the loyalty and on the national competency of Indians. Nor is the resentment purely sentimental. Throughout the period of Moghul rule the army in its higher ranks afforded the most distinguished as well as the traditional career for the sons of the upper classes—both Mahomedans and Hindus. The disqualification imposed by the British Government thus not only operated in the case of the rank-and-file of Indian soldiery as a permanent bar to promotion, but closed an honourable professional avenue to the scions of the native aristocracy who possessed an inherited taste and talent for the military profession. Not the least objectionable feature of the system was its manifestly detrimental effect on the *morale* of the native forces, and it is not therefore surprising that British military commanders of acknowledged authority, possessing the widest Indian experience, should from time to time have expressed themselves as in favour of granting commissions to Indians. In recent years the disqualification has appeared to be worse than obsolete even to the official mind. It was frankly irreconcilable not only with the new conception of Imperial citizenship animating educated Indians, but with the Morleyan policy of associating the representatives of the people in the more responsible departments of government. We have it on the late Lord Minto's own authority that his Government (which probably included Lord Kitchener as Commander-in-Chief) was not only strongly of opinion that Indians should hold commissions in the Army, but actually sent home a cut-and-dried scheme for enrolling a regiment officered throughout by Indians. The scheme is in the pigeon-holes of the India Office, and speaking in 1912, Lord Minto declared that even then he did not know what had become of it or why it was shelved.

Of a piece with this antiquated regulation, in spirit and in results, was the ineligibility of the Indian soldier to win the Victoria Cross. He might perform prodigies of valour in the service of the Empire, as admittedly he did in China and elsewhere, but the coveted distinction was

not for him. Well might he think that gallantry was at a discount. The King-Emperor at the Durbar announced that his Indian subjects would thenceforth be eligible to wear the Victoria Cross, and, as we know, three Indians have already won it in the course of recent fighting in France—the first opportunity they have had since the Durbar of showing their mettle. An appropriate occasion seems now to present itself for taking the next step of abolishing the ineligibility for Commissions. After the splendid vindication of Indian loyalty and gallantry which the last few months have witnessed, the concession would come with peculiar grace and force. It would strike the imagination of all classes of Indians as nothing else could, and go far to strengthen their faith in the *bond fides* of British rule.

We believe that this view is shared by not a few British officers. Only the other day a retired Indian Commander-in-Chief remarked to a friend of the present writer that if the proposal materialised it would have his strong support. Mr. Charles Roberts, the Under-Secretary of State for India, too, made very sympathetic reference to the question in the notable address he gave at Sheffield, on February 25th last. As for Indian public opinion, it is not only ripe but insistent. One of the most important Resolutions passed by the Indian National Congress at their last session, held in Madras, urged on the Government "the necessity, wisdom and justice of throwing open the higher offices in the Army to Indians, and of establishing military schools and colleges where they might be trained for a military career as officers of the Indian Army;" and advocated also "the reorganisation and extension of the present system of volunteering, so as to enable Indians, without distinction of race or class, to enlist as citizen soldiers of the Empire."

While Eurasians in India are allowed to be enrolled in volunteer regiments, Indians may not. The same invidious distinction has been made and has operated to their prejudice in this country. The Indian students at Oxford and Cambridge have not been admitted to the O. T. C., and the effect the restriction has had on the feelings and social relations of the under-graduates may be inferred from the following Resolutions passed by the Indian students at Cambridge, and submitted, we believe, to the authorities:—

"That we view with pain and surprise the hesitation, and, as we understand, the refusal on the part of the authorities of the University

Officers Training Corps to include Indian students as members of that body.

"That in view of the part that India has played since the outbreak of the European war and the services that are being rendered by a very considerable number of Indian students resident in the United Kingdom in various capacities, we cannot help thinking the attitude of the authorities to be inconsiderate and unfair.

"That we cannot understand why British subjects of Indian birth should be specially chosen for this disability—not even imposed upon naturalised Germans and Austrians before the war nor shared by other students of the University at present. We need hardly add that this constitutes an unfortunate distinction affecting the status of Indian students as members of the University."

Mr. Charles Roberts rightly pointed out, in the speech to which we have referred, that the "consolidation of right feeling" between Britain and India was the paramount task before both communities. Can it be doubted that that aim is not being served by the perpetuation of an anomaly which has its roots in the same 'unregenerate racial feeling,' which Mr. Roberts so strongly condemned?

In India, too, the question continues to exercise the public mind. A *Central News* telegram from Bombay, published recently in the London papers, said that the *Bombay Chronicle* had published an appeal in favour of granting Commissions in the Army to Indians. The *Chronicle*, a very influential journal, is edited by one of the ablest English journalists who have ever gone out to India, and its appeal met with enthusiastic endorsement in all parts of the country. "The psychological moment has arrived," it ran, "for a graceful act of statesmanship which will intensify present loyalty, while further delay will act depressingly towards Indian sentiment. Government should realise that the loyal silence of India respecting this grievance now while her sons are shedding their blood for the Empire in Europe should not be interpreted as meaning that all communities are not wondering why so obvious and compelling a claim is not conceded."

Apparently what is needed is that someone in authority should take the initiative. Lord Minto's scheme, it has been suggested, was thrown overboard by the reactionary element at the India Office; but even they might now, one imagines, be amenable to its resurrection. The question is whether Lord Crewe will rise to the occasion.

UTTERANCES OF THE DAY

PROFESSOR J. C. BOSE AT MADURA.

Professor Bose in replying to the Address, said:—My countrymen and friends,—It is with deep feeling that I met after my long journey in the West my countrymen once more and it is with deepest feeling I realise that the whole of India is charged with the same feeling. I am no longer a representative of Bengal nor have I come to a strange place, but as an Indian addressing the mighty India and her people. When we realise that unity of our nation and that unity of our destiny, then a great future opens out for us and I wish to say only a few words about the work of which you have heard.

You may look on life as one of the greatest manifestations, one of the greatest mysteries that surround us and in order to solve that great mystery of life, you must strive to find out the machinery of the simplest kind of life. It was that which led me to study and investigate the life in plants. We may regard the plant as something quite distinct from other forms of life. We may regard the two streams of life, one plant life and another animal life as flowing side by side without any mutual relationship, or we may regard all life as one. If we can succeed in demonstrating that the same law holds throughout the living creation, if we can prove once for all that there is nothing in the most organised animal life, which cannot be also found in the plant life, then we arrive at a scientific generalization of the most wonderful kind. Then we shall be able to discover some of the most intricate problems of life as a whole including animal life. But at first sight there seems to be nothing whatsoever between animal and plant life. We find an animal constantly agitated by the influences of its changing environments. We find the animal moving and responding to what falls on it. It answers to the shock. Whereas a plant seems to be passive irresponsive to the outward changes and the environments. In the animal we find certain structures which we call nerves, charges of which cause sensation. In the plant it has been supposed there is nothing compared to the nervous system in the higher animal. In the animal we find certain tissues which go on throbbing. We find them in the body of the heart. In the plant it is supposed that there is no such thing as throbbing tissue. In order to show that plant and animal are one, we have to discover in the plant all that is characteristic of the animal, namely, whether the plant answers to a shock, whether the plant has

got rudimentary nervous system, whether a tremour of excitation started at one of the parts of the plant occurs all through it. We have to find out if there are tissues which go on throbbing like that of the human heart. Now, all these problems are extremely difficult to solve. It may be we may theorise and attribute to the plants all the characteristics of the animals; but that will be merely theory: these will be no proof. There are certain classes of people who think that plants are utterly unlike animals and some hold that they are like animals. The mere theory is absolutely worthless in order to find out the truth. We have to find by investigation, by means of researches, by means of proofs, that one is identical with the other. We have not only to drop all theory but we have to make the plant itself write down the answers to the questions that we have to put to them. That was the great problem: how to make the plant itself answer and write down answers to that question. We have, for instance, to find out some means by which the plant under the action of a shock of a question should write down some answer, and we have to find out the means of reading this new kind of writing. After doing this, we have to compare this with that recorded by animal life by placing them side by side, and then and then only, we would be able to find out whether all the reactions of plants are identical with those of animals or whether they are different. This is quite different from theory. It is compelling the plant itself to write down its own history, and that history no one can deny. It is by means of investigation which took me many years to complete and by means of instruments which are of the greatest delicacy that it was possible for me to investigate this subject. Unfortunately, it is impossible in a place like this, and at a time like this, to explain these instruments; but here is one instrument of extremely great delicacy.

It enables the plant when it gets a shock to write down the answer. It is of such great delicacy that it can measure things which are beyond our own perception. For example, if we want to compare plant life with the animal, one thing we have to find out—what time it takes for a plant to give an answer. When we are struck by a blow we give an answer but not instantaneously. There is a little time lost. The time for reaction depends on the state of our health. If we are tired we answer slowly; and if we are very tired we hardly answer at all. When we

are vigorous we answer quickly. Then we have to ask the plant, whether it has the same characteristics as ourselves. We have to find out how quickly does a plant answer and to measure the time so small as a thousandth part of one second. Here is an apparatus which enables the machine to give a shock by itself and write down the time it takes for the plant to feel the shock, and then to find out what is the change that takes place in the plant, when it is tired. We have to find out again whether the plant like ourselves is sensitive, whether it can react to the changes in environments, whether plant is merely a passive agent or an extremely active agent or is affected deeply by the action of any changes that are taking place around us, whether it is depressed by a passing cloud, whether it rejoices or shows a greater vigour under the action of the sunlight, whether it undergoes sleep, and at what time it wakes—all these problems we have to think out. Then there is another great problem opened out. If the machinery of the plant and the animal are the same then we shall be able to carry out various investigations of the activities of life, normal and abnormal diseases. If the plants are acted on by various medicines and drugs like ourselves, then we can create an agent or a spokesman on which we can carry out all future investigations on the action of drugs. Then there is opened out a great vista for the scientific study of medicine. And let me tell you that medicine is not yet an exact science. It is a phase of tradition. We have not been able to make medicine scientific. Now by the data of the influence of drugs on the fundamental basis of life, as is seen in the plant, we shall be able to make this science of medicine purely scientific. Then there is the next problem whether the plant has got a rudimentary nervous system on which is based sensation. Pain and pleasure are due to certain changes in the nervous matter. We have the basis of psychology to account for the action and reaction of the nervous matter. These are some of the lines of investigation that have been opened out in India. This science has been initiated in India, and I hope it would be regarded as the great offering made by India for the increase of the store of human knowledge.

In travelling all over the world which I have done several times, I was struck by two great characteristics of different nations. One characteristic of certain nations is living for the future. All the modern nations are striving to with force and power from Nature. There is another class

of men who live on the glory of the past. Now what is to be the future of our nation? Are we to live only in the glory of the past and die off from the fits of the earth, or to show that we are worthy descendants of the glorious past and to show by our work, by our intellect and by our service that we are not a decadent nation? We have still a great and mighty future before us, a future that will justify our ancestry. In talking about ancestry do we ever realise that the only way in which we can do honour to our past is not to clap of what our ancestors have done but to carry out in the future something as great, if not greater, than they. Are we to be a living nation to be proud of our ancestry and to try to win renown by continuous achievements? These mighty monuments that I see around me tell us what has been done till very recent times. I have travelled over some of the greatest ruins of the Universities of India. I have been to the ruins of the University of Taxilla in the farthest corner of India, which attracted the people of the West and the East. I had been to the ruins of Nallandi which invited all the West to gain knowledge under its intellectual fostering. I had been all there and seen them. I have come here also and I want to visit Conjeevaram. But are you to foster the dead honours or to try to bring back your University in India and drag once more from the rest of the world people who would come down and derive knowledge from India. It is in that way and that way alone we can win our self-respect, and we can make our life and the life of the nation worthy. The present era is the era of Temples of learning. In order to erect temples of learning we require all the offerings of our mighty people. We want to erect temples and *viharas*, which are so indispensable to the study of Nature and her secrets. It is a problem which appeals to every thoughtful Indian. It is by the effort of the people and by their generosity that all these mighty temples arose; and now are we to worship the dead stones or are we to enact living temples so that the knowledge that has been made in India shall be perpetuated in India. I receive requests from the different Universities in America and Germany to allow students from those countries to come and learn the science that has been initiated in India. Now is this knowledge to pass beyond our boundaries, so that again in future time we have to go to the West to get back this knowledge or we keep this flame of learning burning all time?

THE RT. HON. MR. ASQUITH.*

India has put in the field in the several theatres of war, including the British troops sent from India, a force equivalent to nine completed infantry divisions with artillery and eight cavalry brigades (cheers) as well as several smaller bodies of troops aggregating more than an infantry division in minor and outlying spheres. She has placed at the disposal of the Empire, for service out of India, 28 regiments of cavalry, British, Indian, and Imperial service, and 124 regiments of infantry, British, Indian, and Imperial. (Cheers.) When we look at the actual achievements of the force so spontaneously dispatched, so liberally provided for, so magnificently equipped, the battlefields of France and Flanders bear an undying tribute to their bravery.

SIR FRANCIS YOUNGHUSBAND.

Speaking of the opportune arrival of the Indian troops in France, Sir Francis Younghusband said at a recent meeting of the Royal Colonial Institute: "A year ago it would have been thought impossible. Ten thousand troops had been sent from India to Natal in the South African War, but no one would have supposed that as many as 70,000 could have been sent as far away as to France. The specially satisfactory point to note is that they reached the fighting line in the very nick of time when they were most urgently needed. They arrived when the Germans, foiled in their rush to Paris, were making their tremendous lunge at Calais. Just at the moment when our line, thin to breaking point, had to hold back the incessant and terrific onslaught of the Germans, this contingent of troops from India came upon the scene, and in their first serious action, on October 28, carried the village of Neuve Chapelle, since become so famous. Had we not been able to bring up these reinforcements from India, had our position there been so precarious that we could not afford to take them away and *a fortiori* had we been under necessity to send out more British troops to strengthen our position in India, then in all probability our troops in Flanders would not have been able to stay the German onrush, and our brave little army would have been swept off the Continent. That Indians were able to help the French, the Belgians, and ourselves in stopping a blow which the Germans had prepared for years is a thing of which they may be proud, and for which we should always be grateful to them."

* Speech at the Guild Hall, London, with Lord Mayor in the Chair.

THE RT. HON. MR. BALFOUR.*

If you go, as I have had the opportunity of going recently, to the front and talk personally to officers engaged in directing these great deeds, you get an impression which it is very hard to convey to others, hard to put into words even to oneself, of the marvellous courage and endurance, the cheerful and serene heroism which is now being shown by our men at the front. Measured by every broad test of war, that heroism stands out under a splendid illumination. We hear of battalions losing a proportion of their numbers which would have been thought impossible in previous wars. What is important is to leave aside the statistical view of the war and to try and feel the individual courage and heroism of the man who doesn't know at the moment whether his side is winning or losing, who only knows he has a job before him which he has to do at all risks and does it. Our gratitude is not only due to the great generals who will be famous in history, but it also goes out to those unnumbered and to us nameless heroes on whose work ultimately depends the efficiency of everything we do, everything done by headquarters in France and Belgium, and to whom in truth and reality we shall owe, when the time comes, freedom from the military nightmare under which Europe and the world is at present groaning.

THE RT. HON. MR. CHAMBERLAIN.†

Our frontier is in France and Belgium. See to it you keep it there until you drive it back over the frontiers of Germany. Before that there is much to be done; there are many sacrifices to be made. But there can be no peace until Belgium is free, until she has had such compensation as can be given for the bitter cruel wrongs that Belgian citizens have suffered. No peace can be made till France has once again brought liberty, the right to think, to speak, to smile for her own provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. No peace can be made until heroic Serbia wins the just reward of her constancy and courage. No peace can be made until Russia finds satisfaction for her lands which have been ravaged, and her dignity which has been trampled under foot, and for the insults which have been heaped upon her. And no peace can be signed until in the outer world satisfaction is found for the legitimate aspirations of our own fellow citizens across the seas in Africa and in the Pacific.

* Speech at London.

† Speech at Birmingham.

INDIANS OUTSIDE INDIA.

THE INDIAN QUESTION IN CANADA.

Canadians cannot afford, says a contemporary, to close their ears against the plea of the stranger within the gates when he declares that justice is denied. Dr. Sunder Singh, speaking for the natives of India resident in Canada, ninety per cent. of whom are Sikhs, says that "Canada's reputation in the Empire is at hazard and her fame in the world in danger so long as fair play is made to wait upon the presumed interests of politicians who have never studied the real place of India in the Empire or her relation to the future of such a cosmopolitan country as Canada."

In what consists this denial of justice of which the Sikh leader now visiting Toronto speaks? In his own words: "A stigma is put upon me in Canada such as is not put upon the Japanese or the Chinese, or even upon the negro." That stigma takes the form of an absolute refusal to admit natives of India to the Dominion save under immigration regulations that cannot be complied with, while the Japanese, the Chinese and the negro enter the country under different provisions of the law or no provision at all. The negro can and does slip in at border unchallenged and unnoticed. The fighting Sikh, who shares the trenches in France with the Canadian in defence of the Empire to which both owe allegiance, is refused admission, and, as in the case of the *Komagata Maru's* passengers, has the hose turned upon him if he insists.

The leaders of the Sikhs do not urge unrestricted immigration of Asiatics. They know how strong the sentiment is on the Pacific seaboard against such a policy.

But short of unrestricted admission, what remedy is there for the undoubted grievance against which Dr. Sunder Singh and his fellow Sikhs protest? In the first place, *bona fide* merchants and students from India should be as freely admitted as those of any other Oriental country who desire to sell goods or study in Canada. In the second place, some sort of agreement such as is now operative between Canada and Japan might well be entered into between Ottawa and Calcutta, by which the *amour propre* of the native of India might be saved, and a small—a very small—number of selected immigrants from India would be permitted to enter the Dominion yearly.

INDIANS IN RHODESIA.

The *Indian Opinion* describes at length the account of a peaceful victory against racial prejudice in Rhodesia. A proposed ordinance there defined a 'prohibited immigrant' as any person or class of persons deemed by the administrator on economic grounds, on account of standard or habits of life, to be undesirable inhabitants. This meant that the administrator on his own authority could declare Indians as 'prohibited immigrants' by one stroke of his pen. But better sense seems to have prevailed after perhaps a pressure from the Colonial Office, and the ordinance is now changed, so the administrator will have to get the sanction of the High Commissioner before he declares any one person as a prohibited immigrant. In other words, as the *Indian Opinion* says, the burden and responsibility are placed upon the Imperial Government itself of imposing a stigma upon the Indian people as such. Another section of the same ordinance which left in a vague state the legal rights of a woman married under the tenet of the religion professed by an Indian is amended, so as to establish in an unmistakable form the wifehood, and all that it legally means of an Indian woman married according to the rites of a religion which theoretically sanctions polygamous marriage. The Rhodesian Government is to be congratulated upon its having peacefully relinquished prejudices which experience has proved often die hard only after a stern fight.

FIJI, AUSTRALIA AND INDIA.

The Fiji correspondent of the *Daily Telegraph* is responsible for the statement that this Island will be transferred from the direct control of the Colonial Office to that of the Commonwealth of Australia. This is a question concerning India more than any other country, says a contemporary, since there are about 50,000 Indian emigrants settled in that country. "There is no racial bar now in the Island, which is however unlikely to be the case once Australia gets the upper hand. It is, therefore, essential that the people and the Government of India are asked their opinion regarding the transfer before it is finally decided upon. It is satisfactory to note that officials in Fiji do not cherish the idea of amalgamation, in which their interests are likely to be sacrificed to those of the Commonwealth."

INDIANS IN MAURITIUS.

Mr. P. Lutchmaya writes to the *Times* about the status of Indians in Mauritius as follows :—

A striking illustration of the peculiar difficulties of the Indians is to be found in the organised opposition that is being made just now against the Co-operative Banks recently introduced as a result of the recommendations of the Royal Commission appointed in 1909 to enquire into the condition and resources of the island. The Commission held that the Indian small planters "form a very important section of the community, and upon their prosperity and progress the future of the colony must largely depend." They noted that there was a demand for loans on easy terms among them to carry on their cultivation which was not satisfied under the existing conditions, and recommended that steps should be taken to introduce among them "the system of co-operative credit banks, which has been so successful in India and Europe," holding that such a measure, which would ensure an increase and improvement in the cultivation of the land, "would be no less a boon to such planters than a distinct gain to the colony as a whole."

Mr. S. Wilberforce, of the Indian Civil Service, was subsequently deputed by the Government of India to study the possibilities of success of such banks among them, and on his favourable report the co-operative movement was set on foot in the island about the latter half of 1913. At about the same time a ring was formed among several factory-owners with a view to secure a complete and undisputed control over the canes of the Indians in the neighbourhood of such factories and to keep down the prices as low as possible by eliminating all competition for such canes, thereby rendering altogether nugatory any benefits that they were to derive in other directions from the establishment of the co-operative banks.

Now the wrangle has continued to this day. The whole matter has reached a serious crisis, and is being fully laid before the Home and Indian Government authorities, and hopes are entertained that a thorough investigation into all the circumstances will lead, once and for all, to a proper and final adjustment of the question of the proper treatment of the Indians in Mauritius. It is a question which has been on the *tapis* ever since 1872, when a first Royal Commission was appointed by His Majesty's Government, and according to the last Royal Commission of 1909, it is still "one of the most difficult of the problems which lie before the Mauritius Government."

IMMIGRANTS IN AMERICA.

The public library is one of the effective agencies engaged in preparing for American citizenship the great number of adult immigrants settled in various sections of the country, chiefly in large cities. This department of library work, we learn from a contemporary, has developed during the last decade from small beginnings to a point where now the library of nearly every city in the country, having a noticeable proportion of foreign-born residents, has at least a few volumes and a newspaper or two in the native tongue of these patrons, while some public libraries maintain large foreign collections under special custodians. Special attention is given to supplying the need of the immigrant for literature in his own language regarding America. Many libraries provide rooms for meetings of societies of foreigners and maintain lectures and evening classes for instruction in American conditions.

Some of the State Library Commissions circulate travelling libraries of books in foreign languages especially for the benefit of the immigrant population.

Since the bulk of the foreign population is massed in the larger cities, the task of making provision for the immigrant falls upon the various city libraries. The general policy is to supply adult foreigners with literature in their own languages, but to offer to children and young people interesting books as a reward for learning to read English. The efforts of the libraries are fully appreciated by the immigrants who want books, firstly, as a cure for homesickness; secondly, as an aid to advancement in their own occupation and, thirdly, for pleasure.

INDIANS AT BRIGHTON.

Colonel P. J. Freyer, I.M.S., (Retired) now a prominent Surgeon in London, writes some interesting remarks about the Brighton War Hospitals, where he is Consulting Surgeon. He says: "The hospitals number five, with over 4,000 beds. You will be pleased to hear that I am satisfied that there are no patients in the world more carefully looked after than the wounded Indian troops in the Brighton Hospitals. Not only have they the most experienced professional skill, but they are looked after with paternal care by the Officers of the Indian Medical Service. Indeed, it is a great pride to me to feel that my old brother officers are doing so unostentatiously such splendid work."

FEUDATORY INDIA

INDUSTRIAL AWAKENING IN GWALIOR.

Rai Bahadur Syam Sundar Lal, B.A., C.I.E., touching the future prospects of Gwalior industries and commerce, writes as follows in the *Commonwealth* :-

"A scheme for a commercial and industrial museum at Gwalior is at present before the Durbar, and the starting of a Bank of Gwalior to help local trade and industries has only been postponed owing to the tightness of the money-market due to the war.

"A good deal of our local capital has been looked up in the stocks of opium, the export of which has now ceased to exist, but we are assured by His Excellency the Viceroy that under the Government of India's recent policy we shall be helped in getting our capital released by being allowed to export opium to non-Chinese markets.

"Special measures have been adopted for developing marts and mandis, and the Board is required to give particular attention to the question of railway freight. The founding of a Gwalior Chamber of Commerce and of Trade Association in the districts of the State encouraged by the Durbar has gone a great way in helping the traders to study their needs, and in the careful scrutiny of legislative measures affecting trade. A statistical department has been created to register and tabulate trade statistics, so that the direction and the volume of trade may be easily gauged."

RYOTS IN MYSORE.

The Government of Mysore have just modified the rules regarding the sale to ryots of improved agricultural implements. Under the old Rules, a ryot who could not afford to pay at once for an implement was required to take a *takavi* loan from the Revenue Authorities and then buy the implement from the Agricultural Department. This procedure was roundabout and did not work smoothly and with facility. Under the new Rules, the Agricultural Department supplies the implements to the ryots after satisfying itself as to their solvency, and the value is intimated to the Revenue Department to be treated as a *takavi* loan and collected accordingly by that department. The Rules, however, contain a provision making the authority sanctioning the loan responsible for its recovery.

PUDUKOTTAH EXHIBITION.

Mr. K. S. Durai Rajah, the youngest brother of the Rajah, before formally declaring the recent Exhibition open, and after thanking the Committee for the honour it had done in asking him to preside, said :-

"Some of you might question the propriety of holding the Exhibition during the war. The present, in my opinion, is the time for holding Exhibitions of the kind I am now about to open. Now is the opportunity for us to infuse life and blood into industries such as weaving, spinning and so forth, which are languishing and dying for want of support and encouragement. This European war has put a stop to trading with the enemy countries which were flooding India with all sorts of articles. The Exhibitions are eye openers, in that they remind us of what India is capable of in the matter of industries. This war, let us sincerely hope, will be the means of resuscitating our industries and making us independent of foreign countries. H. H. the Rajah has done many beneficent actions. This Exhibition is one of them. For all the good things that he has already given us, and for those he is sure to give us in future, we will tender our grateful and humble thanks and also pray for his safe and speedy return to our country. Gentlemen, I formally declare the Exhibition open."

DEPRESSED CLASS SCHOOL IN GWALIOR.

From the report of the working of the depressed class school, Ujjain, we understand that there are yet only two schools started in Gwalior for the benefit of the depressed classes. One school started at Lashkar, some two years ago, is now doing very useful work. It receives a grant-in-aid from the Education Department. In the school at Ujjain the number of students on roll was 38 last year, while the daily average of attendance came to 35 which is satisfactory. During the year about one dozen boys who can fairly read and write Hindi have been turned out, and the Committee entrusted with the management of the school is now considering the question of starting a class for girls as well. Help from the Education Department has also been promised to this school. The School Committee and the local Arya Samaj are to be congratulated on the success of the effort.

MAHARAJA OF NEPAL'S GIFT OF GUNS.

At Buckingham Palace the King received from a representative of the Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung of Nepal, as a personal gift, 31 machine-guns, and after inspection handed them over to Colonel Browne, as representing the War Office, for immediate dispatch to the front.

When the war broke out, the Maharaja, like so many of the Indian Princes, offered the Government the whole of the military resources of his State, which is the Himalayan home of the Gurkhas. The offer has been accepted, and at present some 6,000 soldiers belonging to the Nepal Durbar are serving in India helping to fill denuded garrisons. Of these, 4,000 are under the command of General Padmer Shum Shere Jung and 2,000 under that of General Tez Shum Shere Jung, both nephews of the Maharaja, whose second son has been attached to the Staff of the Commander-in-Chief in India. The Maharaja, who visited this country in 1908, subscribed large sums to the various war relief funds in this country and sometime ago expressed a wish to make a contribution in kind for a combatant purpose. This desire has found expression in the provision of 31 machine-guns—the number of the King's Salute. It is the first gift of war munitions the King has received.

The guns were parked for the King's inspection in the courtyard of the Palace. His Majesty was accompanied by Sir Derek Keppel (Master of the Household), Commander Sir Charles Cust (Equerry-in-Ordinary), Major Clive Wigram (Assistant Private Secretary), Captain Sir W. Charles Fitzwilliam (Crown Equerry and Secretary to the Master of the Horse), and Lord Ranksborough (Lord-in-Waiting), Colonel Sir James Dunlop Smith, of the India Office, presented Mr. D. T. Keymer, Agent for the Maharaja, and Colonel G. H. S. Browne, Chief Inspector of Small Arms at Enfield Lock. The King closely inspected the guns, which are of the latest Service pattern and were manufactured by Messrs. Vickers, at Enfield Lock. They bear the following inscription:—

Presented by Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung, R.B., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., D.C.L., of Nepal, 1915.

At the close of the inspection, the King asked Mr. Keymer to convey to the Maharaja his warm thanks for the gift, and for so fully carrying out his pledge to place the military resource of Nepal at the disposal of the Government. His Majesty also thanked Mr. Keymer for his own labours in connection with the gift.

DAIRY FARMS IN MYSORE.

The Government of Mysore, agreeing with the opinion of the Committee of the Economic Conference that dairy farming is an industry which deserves to be fostered by the grant of some aid and by advance of money and other facilities, have sanctioned certain rules for the grant of loans for starting and improving Dairy Farms. According to the rules promulgated, help to the dairies may take different forms. The Government may grant loans for starting or improving Dairy Farms on proper security up to a limit of Rs. 5,000 in each case. Sufficient grounds for grazing purposes or for growing fodder may be leased out from assessed or unassessed waste lands and such portions of shendi vanams (date groves) and Amrut Mahalkavals as can be spared by Departments concerned to persons undertaking to start Dairy Farms. Suitable sites up to 5 acres in each case may also be granted for the location of the buildings for the dairy, a reasonable price being levied therefor. The rate of interest charged on loans granted under these rules will be 5 per cent. per annum. Such a loan is repayable in fixed annual payments, discharging both principal and interest. The period allowed for the repayment of the entire loan is not to exceed ten years.

BARODA AND THE METRE-GAUGE.

The Government of India have sanctioned a detailed survey being carried out by the Baroda Durbar for a line of railway on the metre-gauge between Dewasana, the terminus of their Kadi-Bhojani line and Bechraji, the terminus of Channasma-Bechraji railway, a distance of 19 miles.

GLASS FACTORY IN ALWAR.

The Alwar State Government have offered to grant a concession on royalty for starting a glass manufactory in the State as a private enterprise. The raw material obtainable in the State, it is mentioned, has been proved to turn out excellent glass suitable for chimneys, tumblers, Kitson globes, perfume bottles and the like.

THE MAHARANI OF BAUNAGHAR.

The Maharani of Baunaghar has been elected a Vice-President of the Society of Women-Journalists, an honour due to the fact that she is the first Indian lady of high rank who has become a journalist. Her Highness is writing and editing a little paper for distribution not only in her own State but in other parts of India giving the reasons for Great Britain's part in the war, and stimulating the loyalty and devotion of the people to the British Raj.

INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL SECTION

PENCIL-MAKING IN INDIA.

In the current number of the *Wealth of India*, the Editor discourages pencil-making industry in India and the vast possibilities that exist in this country for capturing the trade in this direction. The conclusion which the writer has arrived at after a careful review of the situation are worth reproducing here :—

“From what has been said above, it will be seen that, of the raw materials required for making pencils, the graphite supply of India has practically ceased and as regards the wood supply, the possibilities of Indian woods have not yet been fully exploited, and the matter is still in the experimental stage.

“*Primit facie*, therefore, it would seem that the prospects of pencil-making in India are not bright. But such a conclusion based on the lack of raw materials alone would be unsound. England does not produce one shred of cotton or jute and yet the cotton industry of Lancashire and the jute industry of Dundee stand foremost in the world. The fact is modern industries are organised on a capitalistic basis, and brains and finance play the chief part, the difficulty due to lack of war material in a country being obviated by imports on cheap ocean freight.

“In India, both knowledge and capital are wanting. Assuming that brains may be bought, the difficulty on account of capital is great. I have before me a list of over 5,000 companies in England, and the dividends in most cases range from 4 to 6 per cent. only, very few concerns yielding any over the latter. It is notorious that the normal rate of interest in India on first class securities, on first mortgages of land, yield as much as 9 per cent. with very little risk to the capital. Why then should any one risk his money on a problematical industrial venture when he could assuredly get more on safer securities?

“The problem of industrialising India really hinges on the normal rates of interest prevailing in the country and until that comes down, industrial progress must be slow. How that desirable end is to be achieved is outside the scope of this article. Meanwhile, the manufacture of a common article of consumption like the pencil ought to be investigated by capitalists, and I would commend the industry to all who have locked up their money in 3½ per cents. and 4 per cents.”

THE PAPER PULP INDUSTRY.

The extraction of paper pulp from a certain grass grown in the Tarai is a new industry which the Government is endeavouring to introduce into the United Provinces, and the circumstances are such that it is to be started as a State industry. The matter has been explained by Mr. Burn, the Chief Secretary, as follows :—“Some years ago a firm applied to this Government for a concession of the right to cut a certain kind of grass grown in the Tarai, the grass known locally as *ulla*. This grass had been experimented with at the Allahabad Exhibition by a pulping expert and his report on it was extremely favourable. Some of the pulp which he produced from the grass was taken to England by a forest officer and shown to some manufacturers who use pulp there and was declared by them to be of as fine a quality as any other produced in any quarter of the world. A firm proposed to take a contract for extracting pulp from this particular grass, but it has withdrawn from the concession because it has obtained one in a part of the country where operations are easier to conduct. His Honour is now prepared to take up the question of pioneering the extraction of pulp from that particular kind of grass, in the first instance as a State industry, and enquiries are now being made as to the plants which will be required and the cost. This also will be a very considerable industry in the Tarai and portions of Rohilkhand.”

HOW BAYONETS ARE MADE.

The *Royal Magazine* gives the following account of how bayonets are made :—

All the bayonets, swords, and lances used by the British troops are made from best Sheffield crucible steel, the secret of whose manufacture is known only to Sheffield makers. The mixture is put into the furnace until melted and fit to go into the crucible to cool. If a bayonet or other sharp-edged weapon is to be made, the steel is slowly re-heated and hammered into a bar ready for the smith to forge the shape of the weapon. After the grinder had smoothed the blade, it is milled, heated again and plunged into cold water to harden. Heated once more in a coke fire to temper it, the blade is then fitted with a handle and polished on a wheel covered with fine crocus powder ready for use.

GLASS INDUSTRY IN THE U.P.

The Hon. Mr. A. W. Pim, Secretary to the Government, United Provinces, addressed the following letter on the 13th May to the Secretary to the Government of India Department of Commerce and Industry on the subject of the recruitment of glass blowers for the improvement of the glass industry in the United Provinces:

"On the outbreak of war the local Government appointed a Committee to investigate the possibilities of assisting local industries to capture a share of the German and Austrian trade and the enquiries made show that one of the most promising openings is to be found in the glass industry, which is carried on in several parts of these provinces. This trade, though still in its infancy, offers great possibilities, for, not only are the manufacturers who have already indulged in various costly experiments possessed of capital and quite prepared to sink it in improvements, but they are also fully alive to the unique opportunity offered by the present crisis for invading the extensive markets in which German and Austrian firms have hitherto enjoyed a practical monopoly. At present the products of the local factories are somewhat crude, consisting mainly of low-grade lamp chimneys, bottles, and bangles, and so long as the manufacturers and their men continue to lack an expert knowledge of the trade, little or no improvement is to be expected. The Committee have, therefore, suggested that the best means of assisting the industry is to obtain the services of experts, who will teach the local workmen the correct process of glass blowing, the proper use of moulds, and the manner of ascertaining the temperature at which the molten glass should be poured into the moulds. The Lieutenant-Governor has approved the suggestion, and desires to apply for the recruitment of two Belgian or English glass experts with a view to the introduction of improved and up-to-date processes in the factories of the province. The primary qualifications required are those of skilled foremen with practical experience in glass blowing and the manufacture of the simple forms of hollow glassware, lamp, chimneys, tumblers, bottles and the like. The men must also be able to build direct firing furnaces and supervise the construction of fireclay pots and annealing ovens, while a knowledge of the ordinary materials required in manufacture, and some acquaintance with the ingredients employed for glass of different colours, is also desirable. Finally, it is

- essential that the men should have a working knowledge of English.

"It is proposed that these glass foremen should, in the first instance be engaged on a three years' covenant, and in view of the intense jealousy of trade secrets prevailing among this class of operatives all over the world, there must be a clear understanding that they have been imported to teach the business of glass making and its methods fully and without reserve to the employees of any factory to which the local Government may post them. They will be Government servants lent to private factories for so long as may be necessary and on such terms as the Government may determine in each case. The salary offered might suitably be Rs. 300—20—400 per mensem, but this is a matter of which the Secretary of State will clearly be the best judge, and this Government will gladly accept the terms he may be able to secure.

"The letter concludes with a request for two qualified glass blowers on the pay specified above."

A NEW ALLOY FOR TOOLS.

The supremacy of iron in the form of steel for cutting tools is threatened by a new compound that does not contain any iron at all. It is the invention of Elwood Haynes of Indiana, and is composed of cobalt chromium and tungsten. Tools made from it are claimed to be not only harder than those made from the finest special steel, but very much more durable in cutting metals. It takes a steel-like edge and is expected to be useful in machining chilled iron castings; and being non-corrosive, it is already used for cutlery.

INDIAN ECONOMICS.

Mr. E. B. Havell, in a paper on "The Foundation of Indian Economics" read at a meeting of the East India Association said that he attributed the decadence of India's industry and the stagnation of her creative powers to the break-up of the constitution of the village communities which began in Mogul times and had been continued under British rule. The great problems for the future were to use the economic forces more effectively and to restore the vitality of Indian village life, with which was bound up Indian industry on a basis of handicraft. India would challenge the industrial supremacy of the West when electrical science has succeeded in harnessing the power of the sun as might happen to-morrow. Perhaps this harnessing of the sun is the true solution of the problem of industrialism in Bengal!

A NEW BRANCH RAILWAY LINE.

His Majesty's Secretary of State for India has sanctioned the construction by the Assam-Bengal Railway Company on behalf of the Mymensingh-Bhairab Bazaar Railways Company of a branch line of railway on the metro-gauge from Mymensingh to Bhairab Bazaar with branches from Gouripur to Bagmara *via* Shanganj and from Shanganj to Netrokona, a total distance of about 113 miles.

THE INDO-CEYLON RAILWAY.

Great hopes, says the *Indianian*, were founded upon the completion of the long discussed Indo-Ceylon Railway. They appear, however, to have been very rudely dispelled by actual results. Indeed it has been found impossible, so we are informed, to fix regular rates for traffic between Ceylon and certain stations in Southern India for the simple reason that there is no traffic between these places. Even the passenger traffic between the mainland and Ceylon is the reverse of large. Yet at one time it was thought that the railway had to be built to bring together for its benefit crowds of sight-seers from India and other parts of the world. Probably there were few who expected much from the goods traffic, even taking into consideration the large volume of trade between India and Ceylon but the new railway was certainly expected to increase it.

INDIAN CUSTOMS.

The total gross Indian sea and land Customs revenue (excluding salt revenue) during 1914-15 declined by Rs. 180 lakhs from Rs. 1,133 lakhs in 1913-14 to Rs. 953 lakhs in 1914-15. The increases noticed are under petroleum (Rs. 15 lakhs) due to the heavy imports of American oil, and silver (Rs. 55 lakhs) the imports of which were stimulated by low prices. The most important decreases occurred under sugar (Rs. 48 lakhs), manufactured articles (Rs. 46 lakhs), cotton goods (Rs. 59 lakhs), metals (Rs. 24 lakhs), liquors (Rs. 12 lakhs), chemicals, drugs, etc., (Rs. 5 lakhs), export duty on rice (Rs. 46 lakhs) and excise duty on cotton goods (Rs. 5 lakhs).

EXPORT OF RAW COTTON.

A notification of the Government of India, Commerce and Industry Department, prohibits the export of raw cotton to all foreign ports in Europe and in the Mediterranean and Black Seas, other than those of France, Russia (except Baltic ports), Spain and Portugal.

INDIAN COAL.

The output of coal in British India in 1914 was 15,727,600 tons, the following provinces being large contributors: Bengal 4,424,540 tons, Bihar and Orissa 10,651,047 tons, Assam 304,668 tons, Central Provinces 244,745 tons.

TRADE BETWEEN FRANCE AND INDIA.

There has recently been a revival in the gold thread industry in France. A Madras (I. O.) gives a list of eleven of the largest manufacturers of gold thread at Lyons, which is the chief centre of the trade; but gold thread as well as gold and silver tinsel, of which so much is imported into India, is not manufactured only within the city of Lyons; it is in a great measure a cottage industry. The industry was originally Oriental, and Europe learned it from India and the East. Now Lyons has become the world's centre for its production, and India one of the principal buyers.

INDIAN PIECE-GOODS.

Writing on the subject of trade at Bunder Abbas, Captain H. V. Biscoe, H. M. Consul, states that Indian piece-goods appear to be steadily gaining in popularity at the expense of those from England. In three years imports of Indian piece-goods have increased by 250 per cent., while English piece-goods have declined in the same period by 51 per cent. Indian goods have the benefit of cheaper freight, and can be ordered direct from the factory, whereas in the case of goods from England, the native merchant is almost obliged to order his goods through a European mercantile house in India. Textile imports from India are confined to cotton piece-goods.

CEMENT FROM BEETS.

Excellent cement is now being manufactured by a French firm from a by-product in the process of making beet-sugar. A writer in the *Scientific American Supplement* says:—

"The scum that forms when the beets are boiled, and which has heretofore been thrown away, consists largely of carbonate of lime and water; and from 70,000 tons of beets treated, 4,000 tons of carbonate of lime is obtained; to this 1,100 tons of clay is added, the resulting product being 3,162 tons of excellent cement. The scum is pumped into large tanks, where it is allowed to dry partially; finely divided clay is then mixed with it; the mixture is thoroughly amalgamated by beaters for an hour and burned in a rotary kiln much in the same way as Portland cement. The clinker is then removed and pulverized into cement."

BENGAL INDUSTRIES.

The report by Mr. J. A. L. Swan, I.C.S., on the industrial development of Bengal contains some interesting figures. Mr. Swan thinks that while the industrial development of the province must depend upon private effort, there might be more encouragement by the Government than there has been.

A COMMERCIAL TRAVELLER'S MAXIMS.

I believe in the goods I sell. If I did not, I should leave the firm. You can't sell successfully what you haven't faith in.

I don't take long week-ends. Monday morning is a good time for business.

I have a theory that the total of orders has a direct relation to the number of customers called on—the unlikely as well as the likely. It works.

I used to shirk the difficult prospects—leave them to the last. Now I tackle them first. It gives one confidence. Cheerful confidence is a big asset in selling.

"Manners maketh man." It also maketh friends. Someone said that we make money out of our friends; our enemies won't do business with us.

Manner depends on little things. To enter the office of a man you don't know with outstretched hand is liable to offend his sense of what's proper. He usually prefers to shake hand first.

Some travellers try to make sales over the phone with people they don't know. It sounds as if it would save time. It is more likely to produce resentment. It is forcing an interview on a busy man. Human nature resents being forced.

I make a point of not outstaying my welcome. Some business men like to talk on—I stay and listen. Others want you to conclude your business and then get out—I get out. It is well to watch for the little signs.

There are travellers who are proud of having sold a customer more than he can comfortably dispose of. I consider it poor policy. Goods are not really sold until they are in the hands of the consumer.

I don't run down rival firms. It would sound as if I were afraid of competition.

Above all, I know my goods. I have been through the factories where they are made. I know what they are good for, and why. That's more than selling points—it's service.—*Daily Telegraph*.

HAIR NETS: A NEW INDUSTRY.

A new industry has been started in Weihaiwei in the shape of the manufacture of hair nets. The hair used is obtained from Germany, and the nets are hand-made by some 500 women and children, the finished article being sent back to Germany through the post. The local business is a branch of a firm which has been established in Chefoo for some years, and the fact that Weihaiwei is a free port no doubt considerably reduces the cost of production. The total weekly output is said to amount to 35,000 nets. The cost of labour for making one dozen nets varies from 2½d to 8½d.

MR. CARNEGIE AS BUSINESSMAN.

The Commission sitting in America just now on Industrial Relations had most of the industrial magnates before it. Mr. Andrew Carnegie, in spite of his years, astonished the Commission when he gave his evidence by his cheerfulness, his vivacity, and his wit. "What is your business?" he was asked; he replied "My business is to do as much good in the world as I can. I have retired from all other business." He stated that he had always been on the most friendly terms with his employees. "I knew them by name," he said, "and I delighted in it. And behind my back they always called me 'Andy.' I like that. I would rather have had it than 'Andrew' or Mr Carnegie. There is no sympathy about these names, but once you have your men call you 'Andy,' you can get along with them." Mr. Carnegie's contributions to libraries, colleges and organs in the United States up to the end of last year amounted to nearly £20,000,000. His contributions to the United Kingdom, Canada, and the other Colonies to £6,000,000, making a total of £26,000,000.

GLASS-MAKING IN INDIA.

The following conversation took place in the House of Commons on May 5:—

Mr. King asked the Under-Secretary of State for India whether he was aware that the Government of India had recently published a Report on the glass industry, by a Mr. Oertel, the Chief Engineer of Assam: whether any attempt was being considered to supply by native industry the demand for glass manufactures in India: whether the glass imports into India from Germany and Austria, which amounted to £773,118 in the last year before the war, were under consideration by the India Office; and whether the suggestions of Mr. Oertel were receiving attention.

Mr. Charles Roberts: I have not seen the Report to which my Hon. friend refers, but I am aware that the question of developing the indigenous glass industry is receiving the attention of the Government of India and of local Governments.

MODERN INDUSTRIALISM AND INDIA.

An ordinary general meeting of the London, Indian Association was held on May 7, at Prince Henry's Room, Fleet Street, under the presidency of Mr. Syud Hossain, when Mr. S. Saklatwala read a paper on "Modern Industrialism and India."

Industrialism, said Mr. Saklatwala, formed the purpose and aim of modern national life. It dominated all such questions as Imperialism, Colonisation, Naval expansion and Foreign policy. Social legislation, and all measures of internal improvement were its fruits, and kept pace with its growth. Not merely did increase of material wealth and acquirement of material luxuries emanate from it, but also rational intellectual development. Its chief characteristic was unlimited expansion based on the idea of a world-wide market for raw materials and finished products and its essence was competition. But this competition was hardly fair, since the competitors possessed unequal strength and had to work with unequal opportunities brought about by different geographical and climatic conditions. Political strength constituted the backbone of industrialism, since it could regulate both home and foreign markets. For India, real protective duties were impossible in his view, but a great deal could be done by mutual help and co-operation by the establishment, in other words, of a kind of industrial home rule. There was a considerable amount of money in India which could be employed as capital if it could be drawn out and properly grouped. If capital was obtained from abroad, its control should be kept in Indian hands. Indians were not wanting in financial ability, but they did not possess the necessary daring; and he attributed this deficiency mainly to want of experience and political backwardness. There should be no interference with the financial and administrative control of industries. Those who were to engage in research work should be men of high intellectual gifts, and should be sent abroad for their training. The East was not wanting in men of this type who possessed inventive genius. Others, again, must be well-grounded both in the theory and in the arts of production. Their training should also be completed abroad. There was much to deplore in the wrong selections made by various bodies in India for this kind of technical education. The most neglected class in India, however, was the workmen. These should not be regarded as

producers only; and their standard of living should be raised. As regards markets, none should be overlooked, but, at the same time, foreign competition must be fairly faced. Free trade was the best and safest policy for India. Lastly, it was of the utmost importance to advertise their wares and to employ properly qualified and equipped travellers and salesmen.—*India.*

BRITISH PAPER MAKING & THE WAR.

Before the Colonial Section of the Royal Society of Arts in London, Mr. S. C. Phillips read a paper on "The Empire's Resources in Paper-making Materials." Sir G. H. Perley, (Acting High Commissioner for Canada) presided.

Mr. Phillips said that though to a large extent we are dependent on Scandinavia for our supplies of wood pulp, Canada supplied the world with 320,000 tons annually. It had been estimated that the Dominion pulpwood resources approximated to 2,024,000,000 cords on about 265,000,000 acres of land. In Newfoundland the development of its enormous pulpwood areas by two important British companies, the Anglo-Newfoundland Development Company (Limited) and the A. E. Reed, of Newfoundland Company (Limited), had brought a period of prosperity hitherto undreamt of. The wooded lands of the island were estimated to cover 10,000 square miles, with a total yield of 64,000,000 cords of wood, equivalent to 50,000,000 tons of wood pulp.

Newfoundland ordinarily prohibited the export of pulpwood, so that local manufacture might be encouraged, but he believed it was destined to do an increasingly important trade in wood pulp and paper. During the year ended June 30, 1913, 57,500 tons of pulp and 44,400 tons of paper were exported, and in the following six months the quantities were:—Pulp 44,400 tons; and paper, 33,700 tons. In the forest areas of Labrador conditions were not favourable to anything more than Labrador pulp should be exported under a duty.

The lecturer uttered a warning against the idea that the world's supply of timber for paper-making purposes was inexhaustible. Consumption was increasing every year.

Various parts of the King's Dominions were rich in fibres adapted to paper-making. We were on the fringe of a world of possibilities in which the desert places of the earth, the swamps and marshes of virgin lands, might be made to minister to our paper requirements.

AGRICULTURAL SECTION

PROGRESS OF AGRICULTURE IN INDIA.

Rusticus reviewing the Annual Report on the Progress of Agriculture in India for 1913-14 in the pages of the May issue of the *Mysore Economic Journal* gives a comprehensive summary of the development of the Agricultural Department and of all improvements made by it. Steady progress was made in the popularisation of the method of single seedling transplantation of paddy in Madras, Mysore and Travancore. A chain of cotton seed farms continued to supply better seeds in the Central Provinces and even extended their operations to Madras. In Madras the area grown with pure seed increased very largely. Work on wheat was mainly concentrated on the extension of the cultivation of what may by this time be fairly described as the celebrated *Pusa No. 12 Strain*, which has yielded most satisfactory results both as regards quantity and quality wherever it has been cultivated. Dr. Barber, of Coimbatore, continued his important work on the classification of sugarcane and the evolution of improved types suitable for different localities.

The Report deals exhaustively with the prospects of agricultural education. It points out that the Agricultural Colleges with scarcely a single exception have been unsuccessful in attaining the objects with which they were founded, and have not attracted either of the two classes for which they were intended, viz., the sons of landowners who valued an agricultural education for its own sake or suitable candidates for employment in the Agricultural Department. The Board of Agriculture emphatically condemned the uniformity in syllabus and diploma imposed on the Provincial Agricultural Colleges at the outset of their careers and passed Resolutions to the effect that the various provinces should be free to work out systems suited to their local conditions, and declared it was hopeless for agricultural education to develop far in advance of the experimental work on district farms and of the knowledge of the districts. The course at the Coimbatore College has been entirely recast. A two years' preliminary course has been introduced which will be complete in itself, and will be devoted to agriculture, live stock, dairying and horticulture, practical and theoretical, with particular stress on the agricultural aspect in every case. The course is expected to be sufficient for those students who intend to become practical farmers and for the training of candidates for the Lower Subordinate Agricultural Service.

The advanced course of about 18 months will be devoted to more detailed work on the sciences underlying agriculture.

The Report brings out very clearly the ever-increasing closeness of the connection between the Agricultural and the Co-operative Departments. It is mainly in the matter of seed-supply that the Agricultural Department is finding co-operative societies indispensable. Bombay has organised co-operative societies for such purposes as dairying, cattle-breeding, the supply of manures and the purchase of rice-hulling machinery. In the cotton tracts of Burma co-operative organisations for the formation of co-operative ginneries are now appearing. Expenditure on the Agricultural Department is as essential in the interests of India as expenditure on railways or irrigation.

NEW CROPS IN BURMA.

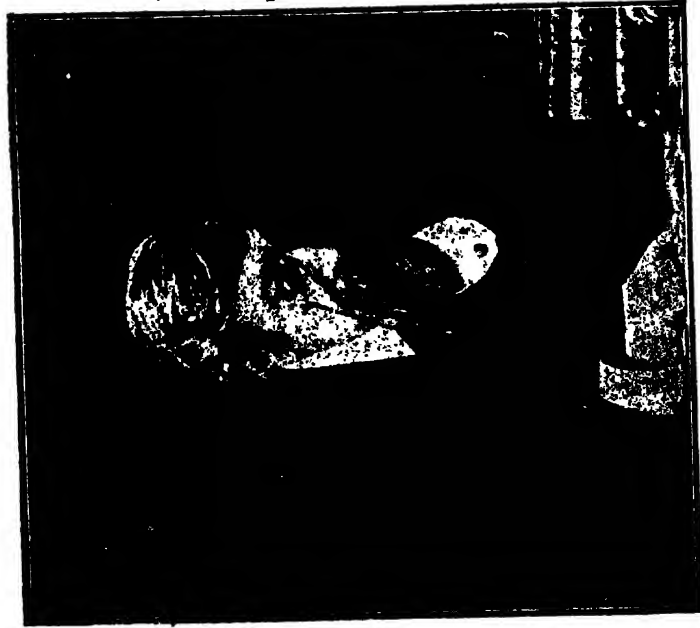
The Agricultural Department of Burma is endeavouring to introduce and acclimatise new or improved varieties of crops. We understand that some amount of success has attended the trial sowings of Madagascar beans, the sale value of which in the European market is much higher than that of the common Burma beans.

TROPICAL AGRICULTURE.

We understand, says *Tropical Life*, that an appeal has been made for £3,000 with which to endow three Tropical Agricultural Scholarships of £40 a year tenable for three years, at Aberdeen University, in memory of the late Mr. Joseph Fraser, known to many as "Fraser of Ceylon." We do not wish to deprive Aberdeen of such a welcome present, but it does seem to us a mistake not to concentrate all such efforts towards the improvement of our knowledge and training in tropical agriculture on the college scheme by voting the money towards the establishment of an Agricultural College in Ceylon. What better monument could be raised to Mr. Fraser than a tablet in the College when it rears its dome proudly towards heaven, telling the passer-by or student, "I was called into being with £3,000 subscribed to the memory of 'Fraser of Ceylon.'" If Aberdeen likes, let her have the money until it is wanted for the college, especially as three, if not six, students are likely to be able to utilize it if this were done, since the war will, we fear, put back the establishment of the college for a little time yet.



DR. RABINDRANATH TAGORE.



EMILE VERHAEREN: THE FAMOUS BELGIAN POET.



Mr. RUDYARD KIPLING.

Literary.

INFLUENCE OF WAR ON LITERATURE.

How is the war likely to influence the permanent way of literature? The "Book Monthly" has put this difficult but interesting question to some notable men and women of letters. Their replies are published in the April issue and form an interesting symposium.

Mr. Thomas Hardy thinks ultimately for good, by "removing (from literature) those things which are shaken, as things that are made, that those things that cannot be shaken may remain."—Heb. xii, 27.

Mr. H. G. Wells says: "I cannot imagine what will happen to English literature because of the war, or to be more exact, I can imagine a hundred things, most of them contradictory outgrowths of the others. I wish I could believe it would kill the Gs. novel business and oblige publishers to become intelligent. I wish I could believe it would give us intelligent criticism. I hope people will think more and perhaps read more. I doubt it. I shall go on anyhow being incurably hopeful."

Sir W. Robertson Nicoll says: "We shall be a new world when the war is ended, and nobody can say what the bent of that new world may be. The only thing I think quite certain is that there will be a great literature on the reconstruction of society."

Mr. Eden Phillpotts has no doubt that the war will inspire the rising generation of novelists to paint with broader brushes. Probably, he adds, no man of any position in letters to-day will write masterpieces on the subject of the war itself, but a theme so tremendous must create genius worthy of it.

Miss Betham Edwards thinks simpler, sincere, and more rigidly self-exacting spirit will animate writers, whether of prose or verse. A loftier note will also replace self-advertisement, vulgar aims and meretricious straining after notoriety.

Mr. Edward Clodd: "For many a day after the ending of the war our literature will be deeply coloured by it; let us hope that the seriousness which the story begets will abide among us, that the tradition of the writers who have won fame by standing on their heads may be the inspiration of the historians, novelists and poets to-morrow. Only thus will the war have influenced our literature for good."

Mr. Arthur Waugh considers it probable that the intellectual and literary conscience of the nation will be enormously braced and that aberrations of taste will no longer be tolerated

CLASSICAL OR MODERN TELUGU.

The Government of Madras have issued the following Order:—

"A controversy arose some time ago between two sections of the Telugu people, as to whether the "classical" or "modern" style should prevail in Telugu literature generally and be the language of Telugu school readers in particular. In 1912-13 the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Board, on the representation of some School Managers and Headmasters, issued two circulars for the guidance of candidates appearing for the public examination conducted by that body. While the first circular declared that all pupils belonging to a school would be examined alike, i.e., either in "classical" or in "modern" Telugu, the second modified the first and allowed each pupil to answer his paper in any style he liked. The issue of these circulars was subsequently brought to the notice of the Government, but no steps were immediately taken in the matter, as it was considered desirable to await the result of the deliberations of the Committee, which the Syndicate of the Madras University had appointed to consider the possibility of fixing a standard for composition in Telugu for the Intermediate examination. This Committee having lately submitted its Report and the Syndicate having thereupon decided that it is not in a position to recognise what is known as "modern" Telugu for University purposes, the Director of Public Instruction will be requested to arrange for the withdrawal of the circulars referred to *supra*."

THE BOND OF SACRIFICE.

Mr. Rudyard Kipling has suggested "The Bond of Sacrifice" as the title for a standard work of reference which is to consist of short biographies of all British officers who fall in the Great War. The work is being edited by Col. L. A. Clutterbuck and in its compilation official records will be adhered to, with such additional details as relatives or representatives may desire to have included. It is hoped to give, in each case, a brief account of the circumstances attending the officer's death, whenever such is obtainable. "The Bond of Sacrifice" is intended for the use of regimental institutions, libraries, clubs, and also for families who may desire to possess the work. The issue of this record will be commenced in chronological order, and for the first volume a large amount of authentic information has already been received. Communications should be addressed to the Editor, "Bond of Sacrifice," 242, Bank-Chambers, High Holborn, London, W.C.

Educational.

ACCOUNTANCY DIPLOMA.

The leading features of the proposed Accountancy Diploma, for which a scheme is being worked out by the Accountancy Diploma Board of Bombay with Mr. K. Subramania as Secretary, are :—

1. Matriculates and School Final men will be eligible to appear for the Diploma Examination.
2. The Subjects will be (a) Accountancy, including auditing. (b) Mercantile Law, mainly as prescribed for the Bachelor of Commerce.
3. Candidates for examination will be required to attend a recognised school for two years.
4. Those in actual service or practice will be allowed to appear as private candidates.
5. Before the Diploma is granted, the applicant must prove that he has practised as an auditor for three years, or has served under a recognised Auditor for three years.

Local Governments will, it is believed, base the issue of Auditor's certificates on the Diploma granted by this Board. This Board will not grant certificates as this is in the hands of the Government of Bombay.

The Scheme in its final form sanctioned by the Government of Bombay may be published in July, 1915. The first examination for the Accountancy Diploma is hoped to be held in March, 1916.

PUBLIC SCHOOL FOR BENGAL.

The Government of Bengal has approved of the scheme of a residential school for the sons of gentlemen. On 2nd July next Government will open the school at Hastings House, Alipore, which has been given by the Government for the purpose. Hastings House will provide accommodation for 50 boarders. Mr. F. W. Papworth, B.A., London, has been engaged as an Assistant Master, and he, with the assistance of four Indian Assistant Masters, will start the school which will be under the immediate supervision of the Director of Public Instruction with an Advisory Committee of Indian gentlemen. At present the number of boarders is restricted to 40. The school will essentially be a boarding school, but to start with a few day-scholars may be admitted. The fees for the boarders is fixed at Rs. 100, and for day boarders Rs. 25 a month. The medium of instruction in all cases will be English but the study of

Vernacular and Oriental languages will form a compulsory part of the curriculum.

The work of the school has been arranged to suit not only those boys who will ultimately proceed to the British Universities, more especially to Oxford and Cambridge, but also boys who will complete their studies at one of the Indian Universities. To secure both these aims it has been decided to adopt for the first few years the Cambridge University local examination by which the school-work may be gauged. The Syndicate of the Calcutta University will be approached with reference to the recognition of the higher certificate awarded by Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Boards for the purpose of admission to Calcutta University Courses. All school games will be played by the boys. There will be a hospital in the school compound. There will be two vacations from 5th to 23rd October, and from 26th December to 7th January.

THE LAW SCHOOL, BOMBAY.

The Government of Bombay have appointed a Committee of eight members nominated in equal proportions by them and the University to consider and report on certain matters relating to the Government Law School. Sir Narayan Chavarkar is Chairman of the Committee, and the other members are: the Advocate-General the Hon. Mr. Setalval; the Director of Public Instruction Diwan Bahadur G. S. Rao; the Principal of the Law School, the Rev. Dr. Mackichan; and Mr. D. F. Mulla, late Principal of the School. The Committee are to examine the following among other questions :—

(a) whether it is desirable that the Government Law School should be made a full-time institution

(b) if so, where it should be located, what its staff should be, and on what terms that staff should be engaged;

(c) if, on the other hand, the Committee are of opinion that a full time Law College is not required, whether at least the Principal should be a full-time officer, so that he may be present in the School Library during the day and may be consulted by students, and if so, what his salary should be and what conditions should be attached to the appointment;

(d) whether it is advisable that maximum number should be fixed for the students in the school in future.

Legal

AN AMERICAN.

An amusing story comes from the *Indian Daily News*, from the United States concerning a demonstration of the difference between decency and indecency in art which recently given in an American Court of Justice one of America's most famous painters of pictures. The police had made one of the periodical raids on shops displaying copies of his nude pictures, suggestive postcards, etc., the shopkeepers in question were called upon to defend their property against the demands of Public Prosecutor that the pictures and plates should be destroyed. Several noted artists were summoned as experts to say whether certain pictures were indecent and suggestive. The most notable of these painters flatly denied the suggestiveness of several completely nude pictures. He followed this dialogue: "Then what is your name?" you call indecent?" exclaimed Public Prosecutor. "Indecency," declared the artist, "is not for nude's sake." "Please to me plainly." "I mean that a picture can be said to draw special attention to its nudity not explain the painter. During the lunch interval the Prosecutor went home and reappeared at Court later carrying a large portfolio. "We arts," he told the Court, "only notice nudity when our attention is especially called to it, and we leave to public artists as us in that respect. Here for instance, is a nude picture which I painted some days ago. Should you call it suggestive? The artist displayed a large canvas of a nude female figure. The Judge, Jury, and Public Prosecutor all agreed the picture was not suggestive or improper. "Now wait a minute," said the painter. He left the Court and went into a side room presently reappearing with the same pictures slightly altered. "Is the picture suggestive now?" he inquired. With one accord the Court shouted, "Disgusting! Take it away!" "There you are," said the artist, triumphantly. "It is the same picture. I have simply added a pair of stockings." As a result of this illustration, the Court released all the pictures and postcards under suspicion.

POLICEWOMEN

The following short account of development of the Policewoman Movement may be read with interest:—

"A large corps of voluntary women police has just been formed at Hull for the protection of

young girls. The new corps has 56 members, many of whom are ladies in prominent social positions in the city. The policewomen are already going on duty. They parade the principal thoroughfares in pairs from seven to eleven o'clock nightly and change their beats every two hours. The duties of these women are to warn innocent girls of danger, as distinct from rescue work. It is hoped to establish clubs shortly in which to entertain girls and prevent them wandering about the streets. The women are being supplied with flash lamps, badges and whistles. The movement is receiving the support of the local police authorities."

COPYRIGHT LAWS OF THE WORLD.

A recent issue of the *Bookseller* summarises the copyright laws of the world as regards the terms of copyright. It is as follows:—

"United States.—Twenty-eight years from date of publication with right of renewal for twenty-eight years. The application for such renewal can be made by the author, or, by widow, or children of the author, or by executors, heirs, or assignees.

"Great Britain.—Life of the author and fifty years.

"This monopoly is modified by the grant to the public of certain limited rights of the users during the whole period and of the right to reproduce on payment of a royalty after the expiration of twenty-five (or in the case of old works of thirty) years after the death of the author.

"Spain.—Life and eighty years.

"Belgium, Denmark, France, Luxembourg, Monaco, Norway, Sweden (for literature) and Tunis.—Life and fifty years.

"Germany, Japan and Switzerland.—Life and thirty years.

"Hayti.—Life and that of widow, or life and twenty years in favour of children, or life and ten years in favour of other heirs.

"Sweden (for art).—Life and ten years. (For literature, see above.)

"Italy.—Life or forty years, whichever period be the longer."

ESCAPE OF AN ENEMY PRISONER.

The Criminal Investigation Department are on the look-out for E. A. Klug, an Austrian electrical engineer of Willington, who has escaped from Ahmednagar where he was interned.

Medical.

MEN MUST EAT MORE THAN WOMEN.

It appears that a man must eat more than a woman. An investigation at the nutrition laboratory of the Carnegie Institute has shown that the average man generates 1,638 heat-units or calories in 24 hours, and the average woman only 1,355; and that, under the same conditions, the male needs 5 or 6 per cent. more nutrition than the female. The difference is attributed to the man's larger proportion of active tissue, and the difference becomes greater with increase in body weight.

HEN LIVES WITHOUT WATER.

A reader owns a hen, says the *Popular Science Siftings*, which lived nearly seven months without water. The hen disappeared from a flock of chickens on his farm, and he supposed she had been killed. As he was removing some oats he found the hen near the bottom of a stack alive and active. The hen had been imprisoned in the stack since early last autumn. There was no way by which the hen could have reached a water supply. She had eaten all the oats within reach.

TENTS FOR HOSPITALS.

The St. John Ambulance Association have received applications for tents for hospital use, and it has been suggested that some of our generous supporters in India might have tents which they would be prepared to present to the Association in this great world crisis. Tents of almost any description would be acceptable but the tent which we are now supplying to the Servian Red Cross, are of what is known as the European private pattern.

PERISCOPES FOR THE FRONT.

The objection taker to public subscriptions for supplying in bulk periscopes of some one type, which may not be the best, does not apply, the *Optician* points out, to the forwarding of single instruments. Almost any periscope is better than no periscope, and under campaigning conditions all such apparatus is short-lived. This proves that the gift of a periscope to any man on active service may confer a vital benefit. Since the first advent of simple periscopes in the trenches some six months ago, various improvements have been made in their design; and the latest pattern, such as the "Purlux," have considerable advantages, which furnish another reason for encouraging private purchases. The same thing precisely applies to goggles or eye-protectors.

THE HOMEOPATHIC MEDICAL COLLEGE.

The College Faculty has decided to hold the annual examination the first year in the first week of September 15. The following have been appointed members of the Examining Board: Dr. Sarat Chandra, M.D., Calcutta; Dr. N. M. Chondhari, M.D., Calcutta; Dr. A. C. Mujumdar, L.M.S., Calcutta; P. C. Mitra, L.M.S., Calcutta; Dr. D. R. D. L.M.S., Hugli; Dr. K. N. Mukerjee, M.S.H., Calcutta; Dr. Probodh Chandra, H.M.L.S., Calcutta; J. N. Sarker, L.M.S., Howrah; Dr. I. C. Mukherjee, Dehra Dun; Dr. M. N. Gangol, L.M.S., Calcutta; Dr. Hira Lal Pathock, L.H.M.S., Lucknow; H. S. Chima, M.A., B.Sc., Professor of Pharmacy and Mr. Shiv Dev Singh.

Dr. Sarat Chandra, M.D., President of the Examining Board, kindly promised to offer a silver medal to the student every year who will stand first in Merit.

THE BOMBAY SANITARY INSTITUTE.

A sanitary institute has been established in Bombay by the Bombay Sanitary Association in order to further the work of the Association in its sanitary programme. The Institute was opened by Her Excellency Lady Wellingdon.

The Governor of Bombay made a speech in which he said that it would give Lady Wellingdon and himself great satisfaction if, at the end of their term of office, something substantial had been done to enable the poor people in the slum areas of Bombay to live braver and happier lives.

There is urgent need for sanitary institutes in all the industrial centres of Hindustan, and the future of the new Institute, at Bombay, will be carefully watched by our municipalities.

TYPHUS IN SERBIA.

Surgeon-General W. L. Gorgas, of the American Army, who stamped out yellow fever and malaria in the Panama Canal Zone, and who is now going to Serbia to stamp out typhus, has been offered by the Rockefeller Foundation a salary of £10,000 a year with a large pension in the event of his being injured and a munificent insurance for his family should he succumb as a result of his work there. It is expected that he will resign from the United States Army and that he will proceed immediately afterwards to Belgrade. A corps of expert assistants will accompany him, and with the large sum which is placed at his disposal by the American Red Cross Society, Surgeon-General Gorgas will attempt to duplicate in Serbia the work which he accomplished so successfully in Cuba, Panama and South Africa.

Science.

THE AUTOGRAPHIC CAMERA.

A hand camera is a good companion, but the difficulty of making at the time a note of the object photographed is generally experienced, as the operator frequently forgets to make this entry, mainly because it demands the withdrawal of a pocket-book for the purpose, which is considered too much trouble. For many years inventors have been endeavouring to perfect a simple process of writing the necessary title upon the plate or film itself immediately after the exposure has been made, but the difficulties appeared to be insuperable. An American inventor however solved the problem, and some idea of the value of the development may be gathered from the fact that the patent was purchased from the sum of sixty thousand pounds by one of the leading American photographic camera manufacturers. With this camera it is possible to write upon the film itself immediately the exposure has been made, the title of the subject, or any other useful general particulars, together with details of the light conditions, stop and exposure. The inscription is permanent, and it of incalculable assistance when development is undertaken.

AERIAL TACTICS.

As for the present we observe that the airship, which was to be the great instrument of offence in the North Sea, is being frequently supplemented by the hydro-aeroplane for dropping bombs on steamers. The inquest on the able seaman, Henry Chessnell, of the steamer *Blonde*, which was attacked by a German hydro-aeroplane off the North Foreland in mail week, revealed that the method of dropping bombs was to make circles above the ship at a height of about 500 feet, the first two missiles falling only a few feet astern of the vessel. The captain's tactics were thereupon to reproduce at a slower speed the course of the aeroplane overhead, whereby the relative speed of the two craft remained much as though both had kept a straight course. The aeroplane was thus deprived of much of its supposed advantage of rapidly crossing and recrossing above the boat. Nevertheless, two other bombs presently fell twenty feet in front of its bows, so that the marksmanship from the hydro-aeroplane seems to have been quite as good as that from Zeppelin airships to date. Undoubtedly the hydro-aeroplane is about to be extensively developed as an instrument of offence.

PLANTS AND CARBON DIOXIDE.

It is generally believed that plants take the carbon dioxide required for their growth from the atmosphere, in which this gas is present. But an interesting discovery was made some time ago by Messrs. Klein and Reinau whose experiments have shown that plants do not get a full supply of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. They found that by supplying the plant with a large excess of carbon dioxide its growth was promoted to a pronounced extent. For example, plants grown for seven weeks in air containing $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ parts of carbonic acid per thousand increased in growth from 124 to 238 per cent. as compared with plants grown in an ordinary atmosphere. Referring to these experiments, Dr. Plaschke has pointed out that the moisture in the layers of soil from which the plant draws its nutriment must play an important part in the process, since it must absorb and retain the carbonic acid formed in the rotting of the humus substances and prevent its escape into the atmosphere and thus being lost to the plant. The plants exhale carbon dioxide during the night. The dew deposited upon the surface of the ground at night must prevent much of the carbon dioxide from being permanently lost to the plant. In the daytime this moisture impregnated with carbon dioxide is taken up by the plant again. But according to Liebig the carbon dioxide exhaled by the plants at night was derived from the moisture in the soil. This moisture was saturated with carbon dioxide which, in the absence of sunlight, the plant was unable to assimilate and therefore exhaled.

COLOURING FLOWERS.

At a recent meeting of the Royal Horticultural Society, Colonel Rawson gave an interesting account of some experiments by which he has endeavoured to demonstrate the possibility of flowers by means of special screening. Colonel Rawson showed a number of specimens of the common nasturtium, in which variations of colour and form had been produced by subjecting the plants to varied lights. A plant bearing originally yellow flowers was made to produce purple blossoms, while the colour of an orange specimen was changed to chocolate. As an illustration of change of form, Colonel Rawson exhibited flowers which had been produced bearing two stems and aerial tubers. It was found that if only weak sunlight were allowed to reach the plant, the result was a yellow colouring; strong light, on the other hand, produced purple and intermediate light red flowers.

Personal.

THE ITALIAN GENERALISSIMO.

Count Cadorna is the son of a famous General who distinguished himself during Italy's war of independence against Austria in 1859. He comes of an old Piedmontese family and is regarded as one of the ablest generals of the day. Four years ago he commanded during manœuvres a force representing an invading army in the north of Italy on the ground in which Napoleon's Italian campaigns were carried out. He proved by a piece of brilliant strategy—which was such as only one of the most scientific of military minds could have conceived—the ease with which Italy could be invaded from the north, and the demonstration was effective in procuring the increase of the army in peace time from 225,000 to 250,000 and then to 275,000. Count Cadorna was one of the generalissimi selected some time ago as officer worthy of being appointed to a large command in the case of a European war. Another of these generals was Canova who commanded the Tripoli Expedition. Among other Italian militaires held in high estimation are Generals Ameglia, Sara, (who will probably command the famous regiment of Bersaglieri) Camerana, Passoni, Ragni, Grandi, and Porro. General Porro is best known for his proposal last year of a credit of £20,000,000 for the Army and an increase of the troops in peace time to 350,000.

KING EMMANUEL AND HIS MINISTERS.

Italy is governed by Victor Emmanuel III, the third constitutional king. The first was Victor Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia, of the House of Savoy-Carignano, who was declared King of Italy on March 17th, 1861, by the first Italian Parliament, which assembled in February 1861, though it was not until 1870 that the province of Rome was occupied by the Italian army, and annexed to the kingdom. The second was King Humbert I., who on July 29th, 1900, was assassinated at Monza by the anarchist Bresci. Victor Emmanuel III. was born November 11th, 1869, and in October 1896 was married to Princess Helene of Montenegro. He earned the respect and confidence of the people over whom he rules before he ascended the throne, and his kindliness of nature and rectitude of purpose are universally acknowledged. The heir to the throne is Umberto Nicola Tommaso Giovanni Maria, Prince of Piedmont, born September 15th, 1904.

SIGNOR SALANDRA.

Signor Antonio Salandra, under whose leadership the Italian Government have decided to recover the unredeemed Italian-speaking Provinces from Austria by the sword, comes from the South, and is, in fact, the first Southerner to occupy the Premiership since the fall of the late Marchese Antonio di Rudini in 1898. Born in Apulia, he is sixty-three years of age and has had thirty years of Parliamentary experience. Beginning life as a Professor of Political Science first at Naples, then in Rome, he became Under-Secretary for Finance in the first Di Rudini Cabinet of 1891, subsequently filling the same post in the last Crispi Administration from 1893 to the fatal battle of Adowa in 1896. In the second and reactionary Pelloux Cabinet of 1899 he became Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. When that Ministry fell, he remained for six years out of office acting as the Parliamentary Lieutenant of his old Chief at the Treasury, Baron Sidney Sonnino, then leader of the Constitutional Opposition. When Baron Sonnino in 1906 and again in 1909 formed his two "Hundred Days' Administrations," he placed his friend and collaborator in charge of the Italian finances; but Signor Salandra's term of office was too short to give him much time for reforms. Latterly he has somewhat eclipsed his old leader and drawn nearer to Signor Giolitti.

DR. SATISH CHANDRA BANNERJEA.

The Hon. Dr. Satish Chandra Bannerjea, the distinguished Advocate of the High Court of Allahabad, died of fever on the 8th instant. Dr. Satish Chandra Bannerjea was one of the most distinguished graduates of the Allahabad University and also of the Calcutta University. He was one of those who obtained one of the highest prizes for Scholarship, namely, the Preuchand Roychand Scholarship, which is only awarded to students who have distinguished themselves in any departments of learning. He joined the Bar of the Allahabad Court some years ago, and he was the first Doctor of Laws of the Allahabad University, and was enrolled as an Advocate of that Court soon after. His career in the Bar has been a most distinguished one. His activities have been many-sided. The *Allahabad Law Journal*, which has been reporting the cases of that Court for some time now, owes its foundation to him. It was only the other day that he was elected to represent the University in the Legislative Council. He was a man of great distinction both in scholarship and in law.

Political.

THE NEW BRITISH CABINET.

The following are the members of the new Cabinet with their respective functions:—

Premier and First Lord of the Treasury:—
Mr. Asquith.

Minister without a Portfolio:—Lord Lansdowne.

Lord Chancellor:—Sir Stanley Buckmaster.

President of the Council:—Lord Crewe.

Lord Privy Seal:—Lord Curzon.

Chancellor of the Exchequer:—Mr. McKenna.

Home Secretary:—Sir John Simon.

Foreign Secretary:—Sir Edward Grey.

Colonial Secretary:—Mr. Bonar Law.

Secretary for India:—Mr. Chamberlain.

Secretary for War:—Lord Kitchener.

Minister of Munitions:—Mr. Lloyd George.

First Lord of the Admiralty:—Mr. Balfour.

President of the Board of Trade:—Mr.
Runciman.

President of the Local Government Board:—

Mr. Long.

Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster:—Mr.
Winston Churchill.

Chief Secretary for Ireland:—Mr. Birrell.

Secretary for Scotland:—Mr. McKinnon Wood.

President of the Board of Agriculture:—Lord
Selborne.

• First Commissioner of Works:—Mr. Harcourt.
President of the Board of Education:—Mr.
Henderson.

Attorney-General:—Sir Edward Carson.

OUTSIDE APPOINTMENTS.

The following appointments outside the Cabinet have been made:—

Postmaster-General:—Mr. Herbert Samuel.

Solicitor-General:—Mr. F. E. Smith.

Secretary to the Treasury:—Mr. E. S. Montagu.

THE JAPANESE ARMY.

The Japs have won the reputation of being one of the best fighting races, and since the Russo-Japanese war they have established themselves as one of the great Powers primarily by their record of military achievements. The reason is not far to seek. Service in the army in Japan is universal and compulsory. Liability commences at the age of 17 and extends to the age of 40 but actual service begins at 20. Those capable of bearing arms are divided into the "fit" and the "absolutely fit." The numbers necessary for the first line are recruited solely from the latter. Service in the ranks is for 2 years in the infantry, 3 in

all other arms; then 5 or 4 years and 4 months in the reserve. One year volunteers are admitted. Reservists are called out twice for training during their reserve service for 60 days on each occasion. Having completed 7 years and 4 months in the first line, including its reserve, the men are transferred to the second line. Service in the second line is for 10 years with two trainings of 60 days each in the whole period. At the end of this period, the men in their 39th year are passed into the territorial or the home defence army. In this they serve for 2 years and 8 months and thus complete their total service of 20 years.

The field army of Japan consists of 19 divisions, including the guard, 4 independent cavalry brigades, 3 independent brigades of field artillery (each of 12 batteries of 6 guns), 3 independent divisions of mountain guns and 6 regiments of heavy field artillery, each of 24 guns.

The war strength of a division is reckoned at 18,700 officers and men, 4,800 horses, 36 guns and 1,674 vehicles. The total strength of the field army at the present time may be taken at about 600,000 combatants. The Japanese islands are divided into military districts corresponding to the divisions of the army, and each division is supplied with recruits from its own district.

The emperor is the head and supreme commander of the army. He nominates the war minister, the chief of the general staff, the director of military schools and the members of the military council.

NATIONAL CONGRESS FOR CEYLON.

The *Ceylonese* writes:—"We have always advocated a National Congress for this Island (Ceylon) because we are convinced of the undoubted benefits that both the Government and the public can derive from it. It will be an organisation large enough, rich enough, and influential enough to initiate schemes of its own for the education and uplifting of the masses of this island, to interest itself in new industries for the people and give them a helping hand, to aid in the improvement of the lot of the villager and lift him out of the ignorance and poverty in which he is now sunk, and generally to assist in the progress of the country and the development of its resources. Quite apart from political agitation there is much scope for social work, and in organising an Annual Congress the people would create for itself a mighty force by which they would be in a position to confer immense benefit on themselves and on the country they call their own."

General.

THE ITALIAN ARMY AND NAVY.

The following particulars are taken from *Hazell's Annual*:—

The able-bodied men annually becoming liable for service are divided partly by exemptions and partly by lot into three portions, only the first of which (one-third of the whole) is fully trained, the second undergoing a recruit course and a few repetition courses in later years, and the performing no service at all. The full period of service is 2 years with the colours, 6 on furlough, and 4 in the Mobile Militia. Men of the second portion, though taken only for slight training, have the same periods of liability for service. The third portion is untrained. Of recent years large numbers of Mobile Militia (which still consists of fully trained reservists only) have been embodied for brief refresher trainings. There are 12 army corps, each having 2 infantry divisions, except that in the district of Rome there are 3. The organisation of the permanent army comprises 96 regiments of light infantry, 12 regiments of bersaglieri, and 8 Alpine regiments (in all 389 battalions). There are 29 regiments of cavalry (150 squadrons) and 36 regiments of field artillery, with 192 gun batteries. The army also comprises 1 regiment of horse artillery (8 batteries), 2 of mountain artillery (36 batteries), 10 regiments of coast artillery, and a brigade in Sardinia, 2 regiments of fortress artillery and 6 of engineers. A battalion of aviators has also been created.

The mean peace effective was about 13,600 officers and 236,000 men.

The total war strength of the forces is roughly as follows, but it must be remarked that the men of the territorial militia are untrained:—

With the colours, officers and men	250,000
On unlimited furlough officers & men	450,000
Mobile militia officers and men	320,000
Territorial militia officers and men	2,200,000
Total	3,220,000

of whom 1,020,000 are more or less trained.

THE NAVY.

There are three naval districts, each administered by a flag officer. Seamen for the Italian Fleet are recruited by conscription; all men of 20 years of age following a seafaring life must serve at sea for a month or more. Actually the whole

draft is not required, and the part which is taken for service remains afloat for 4 years. There are also training schools for boys.

Chief Constructor: Giuseppe Valzecchi. President of the Superior Council: Vice-Admiral Luigi Farvelli. Chief of the Naval War Staff: Vice-Admiral Rocca.

The 1914-1915 estimates amounted to £10,313,009, including expenses for the mercantile navy, as against £13,333,762.

The personnel voted for 1915-16 was 40,073 officers and men, of which number about one-third are volunteers and the remainder conscript. The executive officers are divided thus: 1 admiral, 7 vice-admirals, 15 rear-admirals, 56 captains, 75 commanders, 85 lieut.-commanders, 420 lieutenants, and 340 sub-lieutenants.

The number of ships on October 31st, 1914, was:—

Battleships:—15 (and 6 building).

Armoured cruisers:—10.

Light cruisers:—16 (2 building).

Torpedo vessels:—3.

Torpedo-boat destroyers:—33 (and 13 building).

Torpedo boat:—94 (and 12 building).

Submarines:—20 (and 12 projected).

The Government dockyards are at Spezia, Naples, Venice, and Taranto. At the first named there are six docks, two of which are able to take the largest warship afloat, and two large building ships. Venice has two docks which take cruisers, a dock for battleship being under construction; while at Taranto there is one dock able to take any warship, and a large building ship. There is a building-yard at Castellamere. In September 1909, Brindisi was made the headquarters and base of the torpedo flotilla, and with a view to strengthening Italy's resources on the Adriatic coast-line, Ancona was selected as the site of new naval base.

The private establishments for warship building and equipment are adequate and well situated, and include the Ansaldo Company, which was amalgamated with the British firm of Armstrong, Whitworth in 1903, with engineering work near Genoa and a ship-yard at Sestri Ponente; the Terni combination with gun and steel works at Terni and ship-yard at La Foce (Genoa) and Leghorn, and various establishments for torpedo craft at Naples.

